

# Pharmaceutical Bioequivalence Studies: Ensuring Safety, Effectiveness and High Quality

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# **Pharmaceutical Bioequivalence Studies: Ensuring Safety, Effectiveness and High Quality**

by

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2015

This thesis is submitted for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy from the University of London



Barts and The London

School of Medicine and Dentistry

Clinical Pharmacology

To my parents, wife, all my children and to the Saudi

Government

## **Statement of originality**

This is entirely my own work and all the quotations, illustrations and source materials have been appropriately acknowledged.

Badr A. Aljohani (2nd September 2015)

## **Abstract**

Poor quality medicines are a global problem affecting both developed and developing countries. Governments and the health authorities are focusing on the spread of counterfeit medicines, as it is a threat to patients and funds criminal activities.

Recently questions have been raised about using generic substitutes, especially for Narrow Therapeutic Index Drugs (NTIDs), such as ciclosporin. *In-vitro* dissolution testing was undertaken to identify differences in dissolution performance between branded and generic ciclosporin capsules. Dissolution testing of the capsules was carried out according to the USP guidelines. According to the USP not less than 80% of the labelled amount of ciclosporin should dissolve in 90 min. The samples were analysed using a HPLC method.

Two ciclosporin generic products showed less than the minimum percentage of labelled amount  $\leq 80\%$ . Statistical analysis showed significant differences ( $p \leq 0.0001$ ) of the mean percentage content between brand and generic. Investigations were carried out to detect impurities in ciclosporin capsules using LC-MS. Concentrations of inactive ingredients such as sorbitol were variable between capsules. One from South America, manufactured in central Asia, showed contamination with a plant product (Zizyphine A). the synthetic intermediate (Delcorine) was found to be more than 1000 fold higher in the generic product compared to reference capsules (p<0.001).

In 2013, the FDA warned of the possible fatal effect of azithromycin. LC-MS quantification for azithromycin tablets were carried out in order to quantify azithromycin content in different products. A bioequivalence study in man, confirmed that generic (Mazit) capsules were bioequivalent with brand (Zithromax™) capsules.

Based on the results presented in this thesis, HPLC and LC-MS proved suitable approaches for analysis of drugs and their unknown impurities in brand, generic and counterfeit medicines. Some ciclosporin preparations did not contain the mass labelled. Therefore, switching between branded and generic ciclosporin may lead to undesirable effect.

### **Publications**

#### **Abstracts:**

1. Aljohani B, Al Otaibi F, Ghazaly E, Perrett D, Johnston A. December 2011. Development and validation of a h.p.l.c. method for ciclosporin: its application to measurement of brand and generic versions from different countries. *British Journal of Clinical Pharmacology, 73(6), 1007.*

2. Aljohani, B., Al Otaibi, F., Ghazaly, E., Perrett, D., Johnston, A. December 2012. Tracking the counterfeit and substandard of ciclosporin capsules by high performance liquid chromatography. *Proceedings of the British Pharmacological Society at http://www.pA2online.org/abstracts/Vol10Issue4abst117P.pdf*

3. Aljohani, B., Ghazaly, E., Perrett, D. & Johnston, A. 2014. Analytical techniques for tracking counterfeit and substandard medicines. J Bioequiv Availab, 6, 48.

4. Aljohani, B., Ghazaly, E., Perrett, D. & Johnston, A. 2014. Impurities detection in ciclosporin capsules: a comparison with Neoral®. Proceedings of the British Pharmacological Society at *http://www.pa2online.org/Vol1Issue1abst001P.html*, 1, 001.

#### **Oral presentations:**

1. Aljohani, B., October 3, 2012. Tracking Counterfeit and Substandard Medicines by Capillary Electrophoresis. CE in Biotechnology & Pharmaceutical Industries:  $14<sup>th</sup>$ Symposium on the Practical Applications for the Analysis of Proteins, Nucleotides and Small Molecules, Scottsdale, Arizona, United States.

2. Aljohani, B., 2013. From package to the patient, is it the right medication?  $20<sup>th</sup>$ International Reid Bioanalytical Forum. Guildford, United Kingdom: The Chromatographic Society.

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# **Chapter 1. Introduction**

## **1.1 The nature of the problem**

Substandard and counterfeit medicines are considered to be a worldwide problem, affecting both developed and developing countries. The toughest realization is that there are many cases where counterfeit drugs have caused serious harm to consumers, including death. These are serious consequences and add a real urgency in the fight against counterfeit drugs. The consequences are well known, as the Department of Homeland Security (DHS) advised, counterfeit and substandard medicines could cause a serious threat to America's economic vitality, the health and safety of American consumers, and our critical infrastructure and national security (U.S. Customs and Border Protection Office of International Trade, 2012).

Many incidents as a result of using such drugs, have been reported. In Nigeria, 2500 deaths were reported in 1995 because of fake vaccines. In 1995 and 1998, 89 deaths in Haiti and 30 deaths in India occurred because of using a paracetamol preparation that contained diethylene glycol. In 1999, 30 people died in Cambodia after using a counterfeit antimalarial preparation prepared with sulphadoxine-pyrimethamine (World Health Organization, 2006). Developing countries are a clear target for counterfeiters, because of the high prices for genuine medications and weak supervision from the authorities, but developed countries could be a target too. In 2006, UK authorities detained around £500,000 worth of anti-flu medication that was counterfeit (Mukhopadhyay, 2007). In 2012, the Food and Drug Administration (FDA) announced that a fake anti-cancer drug had been found in US clinics (Figure 1.1). It was confirmed that the fake intravenous 400 mg/16 mL Altuzan<sup>®</sup> (bevacizumab) had no active ingredients (Food and Drug Administration, 2012a). In 2002 Amgen pharmaceuticals issued a warning about counterfeit Epogen® (an anti-anaemic drug) which had been intentionally relabelled with a higher dosage to sell it at a higher price (Amgen Inc., 2002, C. and Tigue, 2006). Another example of critical medication being counterfeited is a case in which heparin, an anticoagulant drug had its active ingredient substituted for a cheaper alternative. This unfortunately resulted in the suspected deaths of 81 patients. A nationwide recall of heparin was announced (Food and Drug

Administration, 2008c). Further investigation carried out by the FDA confirmed that the active ingredient, which was the main contaminant, originated out of 12 Chinese companies and had made its way into 11 countries (Food and Drug Administration, 2008b).



Figure 1.1: Fake anti-cancer drug found in a clinic, USA

Counterfeit drugs in the United States are growing rapidly, in particularly due to ever increasing suppliers from around the world (Blackstone et al., 2014). In 2006, the World Health Organization estimated that the business in counterfeit drugs could be worth US \$75 billion globally by 2010. The size of the problem today is likely to be even greater than these estimates. Dr Lee Jong-wook, General Director of WHO said "Combating low quality or illegal medicines is now more important than ever" (Pincock, 2003).

In 2011, a TV report on the Al-Arabiya News Channel highlighted the problem of the smugglers and counterfeiters of medicines in Yemen. Millions of patients seeking a cure fell victims of expired smuggled, forged and substandard medications. Health authorities discovered that some lifesaving medications, e.g.: anti-D (Rho) immunoglobulin and vaccines, were only water. Health professionals in Yemen blamed the government, agents and health authorities for lack of supervision. They called it "Trade of Death". Many reasons for smuggling and faking include drug availability, no alternative, and high prices.

By the year 2000, 80% of medications in the market were smuggled with the majority containing low or no active ingredients (Al Arabiya News Channel, 2011b). Another TV report focused on fake medicines in West Africa. Fake medicines were manufactured in Pakistan, India and China and imported to developing countries. This resulted in deaths and blindness in patients. Reasons for the increase of the fake and substandard medicines were, lack of government supervision and poor storage conditions. Some medications were sold on the street with half price for expired medications (Al Arabiya News Channel, 2014).

In May 2014, Interpol reported that during a single week, police/customs in 111 countries seized 9.4 million doses (2.4 million in 2011) of fake medicines including cancer medication, erectile dysfunction pills, anti-malarial and cholesterol medications, worth nearly USD 36 million (Al Arabiya News Channel, 2011a, Interpol, 2014).

Recently, the WHO announced a drug alert for counterfeit meningitis vaccines circulating in West Africa (Figures 1.2 and 1.3). WHO advised increased supervision of the medications, further verification and checks with drug manufacturers should be made before administration (World Health Organization, 2015).



Figure 1.2: Falsified version of meningitis vaccines, West Africa



Figure 1.3: Another falsified version of meningitis vaccines, West Africa

Innovators, whose key activities are to create or obtain the rights or exclusivity to their work, make use of intellectual property rights and registration. These rights are appointed in the form of trademarks, copyrights and in the case of the pharmaceutical industry, patents. These ensure that all innovations and efforts are protected to a certain degree within the legitimate marketplace. As sufficient as these measures are within the pharmaceutical industry, it is undermined by theft associated with counterfeiting and trafficking of pharmaceuticals products (Blackstone et al., 2014).

Counterfeiting may be related to organised crime across the world, assisting the likes of money laundering and terrorism (Pfizer Inc., 2007). Profits made could well exceed those compared with narcotics. Drug companies are investing their efforts to fight these criminal acts by applying new technologies, such as short message service (SMS) authentication code systems on packaging. They are working in co-operation with health authorities across the world like the British Medicines and Healthcare products Regulatory Agency (MHRA), the Australian Therapeutic Goods Administration (TGA), and the FDA to fight against these crimes.

Distribution channels for pharmaceuticals in the European Union is going through a major regulatory update. A new directive was adopted in July 2011 to protect patients and to prevent the distribution of fake medicines (European Medicine Agency, 2012). These new directives applied from January 2013. However, for effective implementation for the new directives, it may take up to 3 years (Williams, 2011).

## **1.2 Substandard and counterfeit medicines**

Substandard medicines do not contain the correct amount of active ingredients or meet the standard (innovator's) preparation requirements for quality, safety and efficacy (European Medicine Agency, 2012, Food and Drug Administration, 2012b).

According to the FDA, counterfeit medicine is "fake medicine. It may be contaminated or contain the wrong or no active ingredient. They could have the right active ingredient but at the wrong dose". They may have the wrong manufacturer's name or the country of origin. Counterfeits may include both branded and generic products. Using such drugs may cause harmful effects to patients (Figure 1.4).

Substandard and counterfeit drugs can make their way into the market place. This can occur in both branded and generic drugs. Higher or lower levels of the active ingredient which differ from the required formulation are regarded as a substandard drug (Johnston and Holt, 2014).





There are several effects that consumers could experience when using substandard and counterfeit drugs. This all varies on which element of the drug fails to meet the required quality levels. With low quality antibiotics, the patient's treatment plan can be highly unsuccessful and face additional risk of adverse effects. With substandard and counterfeit antibiotics, this can increase the level of antibiotic resistance and there is loss of confidence in the treatment method by both physicians and patients. Some other scenarios include where the non-active ingredients do not meet the required limits and/or contamination of the drug (Kelesidis et al., 2007, Kelesidis and Falagas, 2015).

# **1.3 Factors affecting the spread of counterfeit and substandard medicines**

There are many factors encouraging the spread of counterfeit and substandard medicines. These factors include poor regulation in countries that do not establish or have good regulatory mechanisms and weak supervision from authorities. The profit that can be made by selling fake medicines is one of the reasons. According to Blackstone et al., counterfeit medicines are more profitable than selling narcotics (Blackstone et al., 2014). Drug availability is an important reason as well, because if the drug is not available on the market patients will search for other available resources. Low supply levels are a reason why counterfeit drugs enter the supply chain in the United States. Some drugs, which are considered lifesaving, such as anti-cancer drugs, are in high demand and offer opportunist counterfeiters the chance to supply a high demand drug at higher than normal prices. But as these counterfeit lifesaving drugs are sold to consumers, there is greater risk of suffering and even death to patients.

The lack of regulation, especially in free trade zones, is considered an important reason for the prevalence of fake medications. In addition, the packaging and storage conditions may affect the quality of the drug if it is not stored under proper conditions. A study of generic ramipril tablets showed that 24% out of 17 samples failed to meet the drug quality requirements because of improper storage conditions (Khan et al., 2013, Johnston and Holt, 2014). These problems are present in all global regions, but particularly affect most developing countries. According to the FDA, 10% of medications in both industrialised

and developing countries are counterfeit. In rich countries, expensive medicines used for body building, such as hormones and steroids, are subject to higher levels of counterfeiting (World Health Organization, 2006).

Even in a country such as the United Kingdom with strict regulations, there is infiltration of counterfeit drugs because of loopholes in transit and supply chains. The common vulnerabilities in the supply chain are due to the many handling levels associated in reaching the end consumer. Because of the many points of entry into the supply chain, detecting substandard or counterfeit products poses a much bigger challenge. Unfortunately, substandard and counterfeit drugs make their way into legitimate supply chains and these also include reputable online pharmacies. There are many points of entry for counterfeiters to enter during the supply chain from key ingredients to manufacturers, to storage vulnerabilities, transportation and several points at the final distribution channels. 90% of drugs distributed in the United States are handled by national wholesalers who deliver direct to pharmacies, hospitals, clinics and physicians. The remaining 10% unfortunately have a more complicated and indirect method of distribution and due to flaws in their practices, give a greater chance for counterfeits to enter the supply chain. Further regulation and monitoring need to be successfully put in place to avoid such vulnerabilities. The wholesale market comprises of three types, the primary wholesalers which typically deal directly with the manufacturers and pose the least risk for substandard and counterfeiting to occur. Secondary wholesalers are comprised of large regional wholesalers which can package and repackage. The third comprises of thousands of smaller wholesaler (Yadav, 2014).

The internet is the main source of purchasing medications in most of Europe and it was recently revealed that out of a survey of 3,100 online pharmacies, only four were certified through the verified Internet Pharmacy Practice (American Enterprise Institute For Public Policy Research, 2012). Many online pharmacies are considered a real threat to consumers because they offer potentially harmful medications. High profits can be made selling substandard and counterfeit medications, especially without the need for a prescription. Some patients may prefer an online pharmacy as it can provide an additional level of privacy as some conditions they may find embarrassing, such as impotence. For disabled patients it is also more convenient as they may be home bound (Orizio et al., 2010). Ordering online medications consisted more of lifestyle drugs such as Viagra but there is an increase in the use of prescribed medications via the Internet for more serious diseases, such as cardiovascular, diabetes and cancer. A higher threat of using online pharmacies for purchasing NTID such as ciclosporin, patients could be at risk of either toxicity at higher doses or treatment failure with lower doses. Examples of NTIDs which have been found to be available from online pharmacies (Liang et al., 2013):

- Aminoglycosides
- Amikacin
- Gentamicin
- Rifampicin
- Warfarin
- Ciclosporin
- Carbamazepine
- Lithium
- Phenytoin
- Theophylline
- Phenobarbital
- Valproic acid
- Digoxin

A death was reported due to consumption of a drug which was ordered online. A teenager took one pill to treat his anxiety disorder and this resulted in his death (Broomhead, 2014). Many counterfeit online pharmacies are falsely stating that they are based and operate from Canada, as Canada is considered the 9th largest country in pharmaceutical sales, with a global share of 2.5% (Jackson, 2015). In 2005, a study revealed that out of 11,000 online pharmacies registered to be based in Canada, only 214 were legitimate (Blackstone et al., 2014).

## **1.4 Methods for detecting counterfeit medicines**

The war against counterfeit medicines should be united worldwide. There should be a common definition for counterfeit medicines and a universal law against it. The UK government takes many actions against counterfeit drugs. Supplying or sale of counterfeit medicines is considered a criminal offence.

There are many tests carried out to check for counterfeit drugs. Package and general characteristics (size, shape and colour of the drug) analysis is a key step for detecting counterfeits. If there are any changes or doubts raised from these initial examinations, they should be investigated by the pharmacist and reported so that appropriate action can be taken. For further investigation chemical analysis is considered. Spectroscopy analysis such as Fourier-transform infrared, near infrared and Raman spectroscopy can establish the identity of most drugs and discriminate from closely related or structurally similar compounds (Moffat, 2008). Other detection methods use microscopy techniques, such as light microscopy and the scanning electron microscope. Separation techniques are used to detect counterfeits such as liquid chromatography, capillary electrophoresis, and mass spectrometry (Moffat, 2008). HPLC methods with separation are generally an acceptable technique. This is because HPLC methods can generally provide the required specificity. All drug products should have a specific assay to determine the content of the drug.

In 2011, Pfizer Inc. started implementing their SMS authentication code system on packaging. Patients and consumers can send an SMS containing the pack code to the company and receive verification of the product's authenticity (Marsh, 2011).

On November 28, 2013, President Obama signed the Drug Quality and Security Act into law, which provides for a national track-and-trace system that would allow a specific drug to be followed from the manufacturer to the pharmacy. This should make it more difficult for counterfeiters to enter the supply chain in the United States. This law is expected to be implemented in 2015 (Food and Drug Administration, 2013a).

Specific tests should be developed on an individual product basis. The dissolution test gives an idea of the release of the drug substance from the drug product when taken orally. Although one time point measurement is enough for immediate release drugs, suitable test conditions and sampling procedures should be established and reported for non-immediate release drugs. If a drug is not available in the required time after it has been taken orally, it will significantly affect the bioavailability (rate and extent of the drug inside the body). Drug disintegration, tablet hardness, water content and microbial limits should be thoroughly investigated, reported, and documented to identify counterfeit and substandard medicines.

#### **1.5 Safety of drug use: branded versus generic**

The branded drug is a new medication that is found to improve or treat a certain disease or medical problem. This new medication passes through many phases of developmental and research processes. The phases include the preclinical testing in animals for pharmacokinetic and pharmacodynamics of the tested drug, phase I studies which are conducted on 20 – 80 healthy volunteers for safety screening, phase II studies to ensure the effectiveness of the drug, phase III studies to get more information about the safety and effectiveness (subjects range from  $200 - 3000$  people) and phase IV which consists of the post approval studies (Figure 1.5). These phases can happen over many years. The product can only be in the market once it has been approved by a regulatory health body such as the FDA. The manufacturer usually gets a patent for the new drug for a period of up to 20 years (Pipeline patent intelligence, 2011). Patenting the product prevents other companies from making and selling the new product. When the patent period has expired, other companies can start making and selling a generic version, but it must be evaluated and approved by the FDA or other regulatory health authorities. Over the last few years, the production of generic medications has increased rapidly due to competition after expiry of the originator drug company's patent (Food and Drug Administration, 2009c).



Figure 1.5: General phases for new drug development. Adapted from innovation.org

The FDA approved an average of 101 new generic drugs each year from 2001 until 2014 into the market place (Figure 1.6). These included many drug classes: hormones, antibiotics, analgesics, cardiovascular, respiratory, antimetabolite and many other classes (Food and Drug Administration, 2015a).



Figure 1.6: FDA generic drug approvals from year 2001 until 2014

Due to competitive market demands, many generic drug companies place their products on the market as soon as the patent period of the brand medicine has expired bringing concerns for patients safety because in some cases they are not safe and effective like their reference counterpart. Some tentative applications may even be approved before the patency has even expired. There have been many reported clinical studies highlighting the adverse

effects of generic products (Gautam et al., 2009, Newton et al., 2010, Perks, 2011). During recent years, the production of generic medications has increased due to demand for cheaper medicines especially in developing countries. The generic medications may have lower therapeutic effects and/or toxic effects (Newton et al., 2010). Due to the lack of good manufacturing practice, insufficient bioequivalence and toxicological studies (Gautam et al., 2009), and even deliberate forgery of the drug, there are an increasing number of patient safety concerns. Small differences in plasma concentrations, less than 4%, may exist in some cases between a brand and its generic equivalent. However, this minor difference is no greater than the difference that may exist between two different manufactured batches of the brand drug manufactured by the same pharmaceutical company. Safety and efficacy trials are only required for new drugs (Nation and Sansom, 1994). Therefore the average cost for the production of generic drugs is lower than the brand by approximately 45% (Canadian Health Services Research Foundation, 2007).

Bioequivalence is the equivalence of the action of brand and generic medicines. Birkett, described bioequivalence as: "Two pharmaceutical products are bioequivalent if they are pharmaceutically equivalent and their bioavailabilities (rate and extent of availability) after administration in the same molar dose are similar to such a degree that their effects, with respect to both efficacy and safety, can be expected to be essentially the same. Pharmaceutical equivalence implies the same amount of the same active substance(s), in the same dosage form, for the same route of administration and meeting the same standards" (Birkett, 2003).

A generic drug is bioequivalent when the active ingredients or the active metabolites are absorbed into the body after administration at the same rate and amount as the brand drug. Thus, the need for bioequivalence is evident by the fact that the generic products deliver the same therapeutic effect as the branded counterpart and can safely substitute the brand product. Before a generic drug can be marketed, the manufacturer must prove that it has the same potency and efficacy as the brand medication. If a generic passes these tests, it is said to be bioequivalent to the original drug. The generic drug application goes through several stages before approval by the FDA. Key areas being monitored are chemicals, manufacturing processes, bioequivalence tests, dissolution tests, labelling, etc.

Bioequivalence gives health professionals and patients the confidence that the generic medicines provide the same therapeutic effect, clinical results and safety profile as their branded counterparts. Bioequivalence studies play an important role during drug development to observe the optimum therapeutic effect and ensure no additional toxicities (Birkett, 2003).

According to the FDA guidelines, bioequivalence is accepted when 90% confidence intervals (CI) for the ratio of target pharmacokinetic parameters of area under the curve (AUC) and maximum concentration  $(C_{\text{max}})$  fall in the range between 0.8-1.25 (80-125%) (Food and Drug Administration, 2003a). The time to maximum plasma concentration (tmax) should also be similar. Bioequivalence studies are an important part of drug development for the production of new drug formulations and for generic equivalents. Such studies are important after the approval phase if there are any manufacturing changes (European Medicines Agency, 2010). Many countries have established guidelines for the approval of generic drugs. Generic manufacturers are not required to submit data of clinical trials or preclinical tests which are long and expensive procedures, but they must submit proof of bioequivalence tests, in addition to other pharmaceutical information (European Medicines Agency, 2008). During bioequivalence studies, some minor differences between brand and generic drugs are allowed. For example, a generic drug may have differences in shape, size or colour compared to the branded product (Kesselheim et al., 2008).

Since generic and therapeutic substitution might impact on the clinical outcomes, it could create a conflict between the interests of patients, clinicians and those of payers/providers (AlAmeri et al., 2010). Patients who are uncertain are warned that substitution that is done only for financial reasons might compromise their quality of care. They believe that a cheaper medicine must be inferior to the more expensive branded medicines (Meredith, 2003).

Many healthcare providers have been promoting generic and therapeutic substitution in an attempt to contain their costs (Duerden and Hughes, 2010). In 2013, it was reported that generic prescribing had reached 83.9% of all prescribed items in community pharmacies in England (Health and Social Care Information Centre, 2014). Furthermore, the Department of Health (DOH) in England considered and then abandoned the idea of automatic generic substitution of medicines by pharmacists (Baker et al., 2009, The Pharmaceutical Journal News team, 2010). Accordingly, pharmacists and other dispensers who receive a prescription containing a branded medicine would be obliged to dispense an equivalent generic version of the medicine instead.

The FDA and the European Medicines Agency (EMA) have set out guidelines to establish the requirement range for bioequivalence for generic drugs, which should be between 80- 125% of the original innovator drug's bioavailability (European Medicine Agency, 2001, Food and Drug Administration, 2015b). On the other hand, many authors question the approval of such range limits for NTIDs such as ciclosporin (Bartucci, 1999, Cattaneo et al., 2005, Johnston and Holt, 1999a, Kahan, 1999, Kamerow, 2011, Sabatini et al., 1999). A small dose difference in NTIDs could have serious side effects which could lead to treatment failure and/or toxicity (Johnston and Holt, 2001).

## **1.6 Excipients in medicines**

Excipients are the inactive ingredients in a drug that include binders, fillers, lubricants, sweeteners, preservatives, flavours, colouring, printing inks, etc. (Wandel et al., 2003, Iheanacho and Blythe, 2009). Although excipients are considered to be inactive ingredients that do not have a therapeutic effect, some studies have shown that excipients can cause many side effects (Wandel et al., 2003). Figure 1.7 shows the differences in sizes, shapes and colours of the same medicine.

Excipients do not need to match the innovator's drug formulation. Some evidence shows that different excipients are metabolised differently in the body such as polyoxyethylated castor oil and polysorbate 80 (Johnston and Holt, 2014).



Figure 1.7: Different generics of the same medicine (lisinopril 20mg) showing differences in sizes, shapes and colours

Another example of phenytoin (antiepileptic agent) toxicity happened in Australia because of changing the excipient in phenytoin to lactose instead of calcium sulphate. That change affected the solubility of phenytoin and made it more soluble which increased its systemic availability, which led to an increased incidence of toxicity (Tyrer et al., 1970).

Another example is of a drug company decreasing the particle size of digoxin powder from 20 μm to 3 μm to formulate digoxin tablets. That caused an increase in the drug absorption up to twofold. Consequently, many patients had signs of toxicity (Johnston et al., 1997). Therefore, many authors have highlighted the importance of the bioavailability of pharmaceutical products especially for critical dose and NTID (Johnston et al., 2004, Holt, 1978).

## **1.7 Impurities in drug products**

Impurities may be defined as any ingredients, substances or contaminations which do not belong to the active or non-active ingredients of the drug.

FDA guidelines classify impurities in new drug substances into organic, inorganic or from residual solvent. These impurities may affect the drug product quality and lead to serious adverse effects affecting patients' safety. The origin of these impurities can be from the synthetic procedures for the active ingredient or from the degradation of the inactive ingredients in the drug product (Basak et al., 2007, Roy, 2002).

Organic impurities may arise from degradation of the new drug substance or the manufacturing process. The acceptance limits of these impurities should be well specified. If an impurity in a drug product is coming from different sources such as a synthetic product and also a degradation product, it should be monitored and included in the impurity limits. The medication properties can be changed or could result in toxicity by impurities.

## **1.8 Organic impurities**

Organic impurities can occur through the manufacturing procedures or during the storage of the drug substances and they include the following:

#### **1.8.1 Starting or intermediate materials**

Most common impurities come from this source, and are found in each active ingredient unless specific considerations and care are taken through the production. For example in paracetamol bulk, the para-aminophenol content is limited by specific tests, which could be a starting material for one manufacturer or an intermediate for another (Figure 1.8).

## **1.8.2 By-products**

During the production of organic chemicals, it is very uncommon to get a finished product with 100% yield. It is common to have impurities from this source, for example in paracetamol bulk, diacetylated paracetamol (paracetamol with an attached butane-2,3 dione group) may be formed as a by-product (Roy, 2002).



Figure 1.8: By product impurity formation during production of paracetamol from *p*aminophenol. Adapted from Roy (2002)

## **1.8.3 Degradation products**

Degradation products are yet another source of impurities, which can affect drug quality level during the synthesis. Impurities can also be formed by degradation of the finished product. However, the degradation of the product can occur with storage and/or ageing. The degradation of penicillins and cephalosporins is a well-known example of degradation products. The presence of a ß-lactam ring as well as that of an α-amino group in the side chain plays an important role in their degradation (Figure 1.9 and Figure 1.10).



Figure 1.9: General structure of penicillins (National Center for Biotechnology Information, 2004)



Figure 1.10: General structure of cephalosporins (National Center for Biotechnology Information, 2011)

## **1.8.4 Reagents, ligands and catalysts**

These sources of impurities are rare in active ingredients. However they still should be considered. In general, some active ingredients may contain several sources of organic impurities mentioned above at levels varying from insignificant to critical.

## **1.9 Inorganic impurities**

Inorganic impurities usually come from the production and the manufacturing procedures. They are normally known and identified and include the following:

## **1.9.1 Reagents, ligands and catalysts**

There are limited possibilities for these kinds of impurities to happen. However care must take place during the production otherwise it may result in a product that exceeds permitted limits.

#### **1.9.2 Heavy metals**

During the production, the two main sources for heavy metals are water and chemical reactors. They may cause acidification or hydrolysis of acid during manufacturing.

These impurities of heavy metals can be prevented by using demineralised water and glass lined instruments.

#### **1.9.3 Other materials**

During the manufacturing process many types of filters may be used. Activated charcoal may be used for filtration. These impurities could be avoided by regular monitoring of fibres and black particles in the product (ICH Harmonised Tripartite Guideline, 2002, Roy, 2002, Food and Drug Administration, 2003c).

## **1.10 Residual solvent**

According to FDA guidelines residual solvents can be defined as organic volatile chemicals that are used or produced in the manufacture of drug substances or excipients, or in the preparation of drug products.

The solvent is one of the important factors during the manufacturing procedures as residues may be harmful. If it cannot be removed completely during the synthetic process, then the product might not meet specifications, affect good manufacturing practices, or interfere with other quality based requirements. Based on these facts, there should be suitable selection of the solvent for the production of a drug as it may increase the yield, or modify characteristics such as crystal form, purity, and solubility (Roy, 2002, Food and Drug Administration, 2003b).

## **1.10.1 Solvent classification**

According to ICH guidelines, residual solvents are evaluated according to their possible hazard effect to human health and classified under three classes (European Medicines Agency, 2009)

*Class 1 solvents:* Solvents to be avoided.

Known human carcinogens, strongly suspected human carcinogens, and environmental hazards (Table 1.1).



Table 1.1: Class I: Solvents to be avoided in medications

\*Source: (Food and Drug Administration, 2003b, European Medicine Agency, 2009)

*Class 2 solvents:* Solvents to be limited.

Non genotoxic animal carcinogens or possible causative agents of other irreversible toxicity such as neurotoxicity or teratogenicity. Solvents suspected of other significant but reversible toxicities (Table 1.2).



Table 1.2: Solvents to be limited in medications

\*Source: (Food and Drug Administration, 2003b, European Medicine Agency, 2009)

*Class 3 solvents:* Solvents with low toxic potential.

Solvents with low toxic potential to man where no health-based exposure limit is needed. Class 3 solvents have permitted daily exposure of 50 mg or more per day (Table 1.3).



Table 1.3: Solvents with low toxic potential\*

\*Source: (Food and Drug Administration, 2003b, European Medicine Agency, 2009)

## **1.11 Other sources of impurities**

Impurities in the drugs can also occur as a result of exposure to the heat, light, change in pH, interaction with the package component or with other active ingredients if it is a combination drug (Kovaleski et al., 2007).

## **1.12 Aims and objectives**

In this thesis, the growing issue of substandard and counterfeit medicines and how methods used to reduce these challenges are reviewed. The challenges highlighted clearly affect all developed and developing nations on many levels.

Using generic substitutions has the advantage of a reduced cost to the healthcare system and patients. Generic drugs must pass a bioequivalence test to ensure they have the same therapeutic effects as the innovator counterpart and offer the same quality and safety.

However, there are some critical differences between the generics and their branded counterparts. Randomly switching between brand and generic drugs could lead to undesirable effects especially with NTIDs.

The aim of this thesis is to:

- 1. Investigate the use of *in-vitro* dissolution test of ciclosporin capsules to generate information about capsule rupture and drug release of brand versus generic products.
- 2. Develop, validate and apply a high performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) method for detecting the amount of ciclosporin in generic versus brand capsules.
- 3. Modify an ultra-performance liquid chromatography/mass spectrometry (UHPLC-MS) method in order that ciclosporin and its impurities could be detected simultaneously.
- 4. Investigate the use of *in-vitro* dissolution test of azithromycin tablets to generate information about tablet dissolution and drug release of brand versus generic products.
- 5. Validate a modified UHPLC-MS/MS method for quantification of azithromycin tablets.
- 6. Highlight any potential variations between the generic and branded innovator using an *invivo* bioequivalence test in man. This study will give an example of the clinical trial required to approve generic medications.

# **Chapter 2. Materials and final methods**

## **2.1 Introduction**

This chapter explains in detail the materials used for all experiments and the final methods used for each test.

The three main analysis systems used were a PT-DT 70 dissolution tester, HPLC and UHPLC-MS.

A dissolution test is important for quality assurance of the drug (Dressman et al., 1998). An *in-vitro* dissolution test gives the information about the capsule rupture time and drug release. The dissolved sample can be used to measure the actual mass of a drug.

HPLC is an excellent technique for measuring average drug content in tablets and capsules. It can be used for therapeutic drug monitoring (TDM) when suitable detectors such as a mass spectrometer are used. The advantages of HPLC-mass spectrometry are high sensitivity, specificity, small sample requirements, minimal sample preparation, rapid throughput, and simultaneous measurement for the drug and the possible impurities. However, HPLC with ultraviolet/fluorescent detection is also a good method to quantify and analyse the impurities in the analysis of medicines.

The UHPLC-MS method is one of the new techniques in liquid chromatography. It has the advantage of using columns with smaller particle size e.g. 1.7 µm, which result in decreasing analysis time, increasing the sensitivity, good resolution and higher efficiency (Lu et al., 2015). UHPLC-MS is required when the samples are minimal such as biopsies and blood samples (Whitman et al., 1993).

## **2.2 General chemicals**

All general chemicals were purchased either from Sigma-Aldrich Company Ltd. (Fancy Rd., Poole, Dorset, BH12 4QH, UK) or from VWR International (Hunter Boulevard, Magna Park, Lutterworth, Leicestershire LE17 4XN, UK) unless otherwise stated.

- Ciclosporin A, lot number: BCBD2418V, catalogue number: 30024-100 mg, purity > 98.5%.
- Acetonitrile, HPLC grade, catalogue number: RH1015, batch number 12A17CA.
- Trifluoroacetic acid, catalogue number: PTS6045, batch number: PD241459.
- Azithromycin dehydrate, lot number: 020M4703V, catalogue number: PZ0007-25 mg, purity  $> 98\%$ .
- Di-sodium hydrogen orthophosphate, lot number: K27313279010, product number: 10383G 500 g.
- Sodium dihydrogen orthophosphate 1-hydrate, lot number: A581121-425, product number: 102454R 500 g.
- Phosphoric acid, lot number: 59H3638, catalogue number: P-6560 500 g.
- Deionised water at purity of 18.2 M $\Omega$ .cm was obtained from ultra-water system (PURELAB® ULTRA), Windsor Court, Kingsmead Business Park, High Wycombe, HP11 1JU, UK.
- Acetonitrile, Optima<sup>™</sup> LC/MS grade, product code: 10055454, Fisher Scientific UK Ltd, Bishop Meadow Road, Loughborough, LE11 5RG, UK.
- Methanol, Optima™ LC/MS grade, product code: 10636545, Fisher Scientific UK Ltd, Bishop Meadow Road, Loughborough, LE11 5RG, UK.

## **2.3 General equipment**

- **PT-DT 70 dissolution tester from PharmaTest, Hainburg, Germany (Figure 2.1).**
- High quality electronic instrument: Sartorius (R 160 P) Electronic Semi-Microbalance, Sartorius Stedim, Surrey, UK.
- 20 µm Poroplast Filter Element from PharmaTest, Hainburg, Germany.
- Ultra-water system (PURELAB®ULTRA) for deionised water, ELGA, UK.
- HPLC system Jasco UV- 975 intelligent UV-VIS with Jasco AS-950 intelligent sampler injector, two Jasco PU-980 intelligent HPLC pumps and Jasco DG-2080-53 3 lines degasser.
- Jones Chromatography (Column Heater) Model 7990.
- The HPLC control data acquisition was by Chromatography Data System version 1.8.6.1 from JASCO Chrom Pass.
- HPLC used for ciclosporin separation was carried out using a reversed phase C18 column (5 µm, 125 x 4.6 mm, ACE 5) obtained from Advanced Chromatography Technologies, Aberdeen, AB25 1HF, UK.
- JENWAY spectrophotometer, Ultra-Violet/Visible, Model 6715 UV/Vis.
- UHPLC/MS used for the detection of ciclosporin impurities was carried out using a reversed phase ACQUITY UHPLC HSS T3 Column (1.8 µm, 1 mm X 150 mm), obtained from Waters Limited, 730-740 Centennial Court, Centennial Park, Elstree, Hertfordshire, WD6 3SZ, UK.
- Waters Nanoacquity UHPLC system with Waters Micromass Q-ToF Premier (Waters, UK).
- Accela UHPLC system with triple-stage-quadrupole mass spectrometry (TSQ) Vantage system (Thermo Scientific, Hemel Hempstead, UK).
- UHPLC-MS/MS azithromycin quantitation was carried out using a reversed phase Synergi HydroRP, LC Column (4 µm, 150 x 0.3 mm), obtained from Phenomenex, Queens Avenue, Hurdsfield Ind. Est., Macclesfield, Cheshire SK10 2BN, UK.

#### **2.4 Methods used**

## **2.4.1 HPLC experimental method for ciclosporin capsules (Test A)**



Figure 2.1: PT –DT 70 dissolution tester used for dissolution test

#### **2.4.1.1 Application of the assay**

A HPLC method was applied to detect the amount of ciclosporin in generic versus brand capsules.

#### **2.4.1.2 Method details**

The extraction of active ingredients was done by a dissolution test. PT-DT 70 is the low head flip-back dissolution tester, which is (according to the manufacturer) the optimal tester for all US Pharmacopeia and European Pharmacopeia applications. It contains seven test stations with paddle stirrer adapters, fully adjustable and regulated speed from 25 to 250 rpm. Seven ciclosporin products were included in the study. Each capsule was weighed and the average weight for the capsules calculated  $(n = 4)$ . Dissolution tests were done to check if all capsules met with the US Pharmacopeia 2008, (USP-31) requirements such as

rupturing time within 15 min. All capsules were stored according to the conditions labelled on the package. Dissolution medium was prepared according to USP guidelines which is deionised water (500 mL). The samples were filtered using a 20 µm Filter. The HPLC experiment was carried out with a UV detection wavelength of 210 nm. The separation was carried out using a C18 column (as described in section 2.3). The column temperature was maintained at 50<sup>o</sup>C and the injection volume was 20 µL. The analytes were eluted by isocratic elution at a flow rate of 0.7 mL/min with acetonitrile and water (70:30%,  $v/v$ ) and 0.03%, v/v trifluoroacetic acid, over 25 min. The data acquisition and chromatography analysis were carried out using Chromatography Data System version 1.8.6.1 from Jasco Chrom Pass. Statistical analyses and graphical presentation were carried out using Minitab-16 and Microsoft Excel 2010.

## **2.4.2 HPLC experimental method for ciclosporin capsules (Test B)**

Same method (Test A) was applied to obtain more precise results with the following modifications:

- Eight ciclosporin products were included in this study.
- Increase the tested capsules to  $(n = 5)$ .
- New calibration line.
- Peak area measurement adjustment of HPLC system, area calculated as  $(mV.s)$  instead of (mV.min)
- Sampling times increased up to 120 min and included two additional time points.

#### **2.4.2.1 Application of the assay**

A HPLC method was applied to detect the amount of ciclosporin amount in generic versus brand capsules.

#### **2.4.2.2 Method details**

Eight ciclosporin products were included in the study. Each capsule was weighed and the average weight for the capsules calculated  $(n = 5)$ . Dissolution tests were done to check if all capsules met with the US Pharmacopeia 2008, (USP-31) requirements such as rupturing time within 15 min. All capsules were stored according to the conditions labelled on the package. Dissolution medium was prepared according to USP guidelines, which is deionised water (500 mL). The samples were filtered using a 20 µm Filter. The HPLC experiment was carried out with a UV detection wavelength of 210 nm. The separation was carried out using a C18 column (as described in section 2.3). The column temperature was maintained at 50°C and the injection volume was 20 µL. The analytes were eluted by isocratic elution at a flow rate of 0.7 mL/min with acetonitrile and water (70:30%,  $v/v$ ) and 0.03%, v/v trifluoroacetic acid, over 25 min. The data acquisition and chromatography analysis were carried out using Chromatography Data System version 1.8.6.1 from Jasco Chrom Pass.

Statistical analyses and graphical presentation were carried out using Minitab-16 and Microsoft Excel 2010.

#### **2.4.3 UHPLC-MS detection of impurities in ciclosporin capsules**

The method used was slightly modified after Pandher et al. (2009) under the following conditions: UHPLC performed on Waters Nanoaquity UHPLC system. Separation of ciclosporin impurities was achieved on Waters Acquity UHPLC HSS T3 column (see details in section 2.3) with the following solvent system: solvent  $A = 0.1\%$  formic acid in water, solvent  $B = 0.1\%$  formic acid in acetonitrile. The flow rate was 40  $\mu$ L/min. The analytical run starts by 100% of solvent A for 2 min, then a gradient 100% A to 100% B over 10 min, then 100% of solvent B for 3 min, then back to 100% A over 1 min and maintain 100% of A for 4 min (Pandher et al., 2009).

Mass spectrometry conditions were as follows: mass spectrometry was performed on Waters Q-ToF Premier in positive and negative electrospray ionization modes (ESI). ESI voltages were 2.9 V in negative mode and 3.1 V in positive mode. Cone voltage was 38 V. Source temperature was 80 °C and desolvation temperature was 250 °C. Desolvation and cone gases were nitrogen with flow of 400 L/min and 30 L/min, respectively. The MS scan was adjusted to acquire between 40-1500 m/z range with scan time of 0.18 s and inter-scan delay of 0.02 s. Data were acquired in centroid mode with online lock mass correction using leucine enkephaline (MW = 556.2771) as lock mass. Instrument calibration was done by 50 mM sodium formate. A quality control ciclosporin standard was injected regularly to monitor the stability of the UHPLC system.

Data acquisition was done using Water Masslynx software (V 4.1) from Waters, UK. Data analysis of the mass detection, chromatographic peak detection, peak deconvolution, deisotoping, retention time normalisation and peak alignment were all done using MZmine software (version 2.2). Peak lists including retention, m/z and peak intensities were exported from MZmine and imported into MetaboAnalyst software (version 2.0, www.metaboanalyst.ca). Fold change, and p values were generated. Ciclosporin impurities were detected using three different online data base searches:

- PubChem Compound Database http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pccompound
- KEGG Compound Database http://www.genome.jp/kegg/compound/
- Human Metabolome Database (HMDB) http://www.hmdb.ca/

## **2.4.4 UHPLC-MS/MS quantification for azithromycin tablets**

Quantification of azithromycin was carried using a modified UHPLC-MS/MS method, modified after Rossmann et al. (2014). Azithromycin was separated on an Accela UHPLC system equipped with a Synergi HydroRP, LC column (4  $\mu$ m, 150 x 0.3 mm). The column temperature was maintained at 37 °C using an Accela column oven. Gradient elution was employed using a mobile phase of 0.1% formic acid (FA) in water (A) and 0.1% FA in acetonitrile (B) as follows:  $A = 90\%$  from 0-0.2 min, from 90% A to 5% over 4 min, held at 5% A for 1.4 min, from 5% to 90% A over 0.2 min, ending with 90% A for 2.7 min, all at a flow rate of 30  $\mu$ L/min. (Rossmann et al., 2014) A Triple Stage Quadrupole mass spectrometry (TSQ) Vantage system equipped with an electrospray ion source was used for mass detection. Samples were analysed in Multiple Reaction Monitoring (MRM), positive mode at a spray voltage of 3500 V. Nitrogen was used as sheath at a flow rate of 20 arbitrary units. Argon was used as the collision gas with a pressure of 1.5 mTorr. The optimum transitional daughter ion mass and collision energy for azithromycin was: m/z  $749.5 \rightarrow 591.4$  (Collision energy 20V) and internal standard roxithromycin was: m/z 837.5  $\rightarrow$  679.4 (Collision energy 20V). Data acquisition and chromatography analysis were carried out using Xcalibur software version 2.2.

# **Chapter 3. Development and validation of a HPLC method for ciclosporin**

## **3.1 Introduction**

In the last few years, many questions have been raised about using generic substitutes, especially those for NTIDs. New drug safety advice announced by the Medicines & Healthcare product Regulatory Agency states that ciclosporin is such a NTID. If the patient is using one brand of ciclosporin then the same brand should be maintained for the rest of the treatment, unless change is unpreventable. This patient should be closely monitored (Medicines and Healthcare products Regulatory Agency, 2009).

Ciclosporin has significantly improved the graft survival rate in many transplantations from 60 to 80% (Opelz, 1995, Traynor et al., 2012). Ciclosporin in whole blood is routinely measured by an immunoassay supplied by some companies like Abbott (Sanghvi et al., 1989, Hamwi et al., 2000). The limit of detection for such assays is 25 ng/mL. Bioequivalence studies of ciclosporin capsules require the measurement of the drug and also the concentrations of other impurities that can lead to serious problems.

HPLC is an excellent technique for measuring average drug content in tablets and capsules. It can be used for TDM when suitable detectors such as a mass spectrometer are used. The advantages of HPLC-MS are high sensitivity, specificity, small sample requirements, minimal sample preparation, rapid throughput, and simultaneous measurement for the drug and the possible impurities. However, HPLC with ultraviolet/fluorescent detection is also a good method to quantify and analyse the impurities in the analysis of ciclosporin capsules. Like other peptides, ciclosporin can be measured by HPLC at relatively low UV absorbance wavelengths and this is considered as a gold standard for its measurement. (Burckart et al., 1990, Shaw et al., 1999, Chimalakonda et al., 2002). The HPLC-MS method is required when the samples are minimal such as biopsies and blood samples (Whitman et al., 1993). There have been various methods to measure the content of the drug in ciclosporin capsules. Some of the studies were done by cutting the capsules and

dissolving them before subjecting them to an analytical HPLC system (Aziz et al., 2010). Some suggest to cut the capsule and obtain the contents and dissolve a known volume in the mobile phase before quantifying using HPLC. According to the United States Pharmacopeia, 2007, it is advised to cut about 20 capsules and extract the contents with the aid of alcohol and make up a known solution in a volumetric flask with ethanol. Then this stock is diluted to obtain a concentration of 1 mg/mL. This can then be used for the determination of ciclosporin in capsules. The other method to obtain the contents of a capsule is to aspirate using a syringe and prepare a dilution from the obtained stock. Both of these methods lack accuracy and have the possibility of producing variable results, because we cannot make sure all the contents are extracted.

A dissolution method of rupturing the capsule in the medium and then measuring the content of ciclosporin in this medium would give rise to more reproducible results.

## **3.2 Ciclosporin**

Ciclosporin (cyclosporine A, ciclosporin A, cyclosporin A, CyA) is a lipophilic cyclic undecapeptide compound formed by a soil fungus called Tolypocladiuminflatum Gams (Golabi et al., 2003). It was discovered by Sandoz of Basel, Switzerland in the 1970s (Tribe, 1998). Ciclosporin can be prepared by synthetic or semi-synthetic ways (Hauer et al., 1994). Ciclosporin capsules contain the following inactive ingredients: Corn oil-monodi-triglycerides, polyoxyl 40 hydrogenated castor oil NF, DL-α-tocopherol USP, gelatine NF, glycerol, iron oxide black, propylene glycol USP, titanium dioxide USP, carmine, and other ingredients (Novartis Pharmaceuticals Corporation, 2011).

Chemically, ciclosporin is described as [R-[R\*,R\*-(E)]]-cyclic(L-alanyl-D-alanyl-Nmethyl-L-leucyl-N-methyl-L-leucyl-N-methyl-L-valyl-3-hydroxy-N,4-dimethyl-L-2 amino-6-octenoyl-L-α-amino-butyryl-N-methylglycyl-N-methyl-L-leucyl-L-valyl-Nmethyl-L-leucyl) (Figure 3.1).



Figure 3.1: The chemical structure of ciclosporin (ChemSpider, 2015)

## **3.3 Applications and mode of action**

Ciclosporin is an immunosuppressant agent with a narrow therapeutic index. It has been widely used since 1978 after organ or tissue transplant to prevent rejection (Allison and Eugui, 2000, Thomas et al., 2005). For auto-immune diseases such as severe rheumatoid arthritis and psoriasis, ciclosporin can also be used (Food and Drug Administration, 2011b). The donor cells used in the transplantation should be compatible with the recipient but not identical. However the response of the immune system can lead to the attack and rejection of the transplanted organ or tissue. Ciclosporin suppresses the activity of the cells of the immune system preventing such attacks or rejection of the transplanted organ or tissue (Postolache et al., 2002).

Ciclosporin binds to cyclophilin A (CycA), an intracellular protein found in the cytosol (Ryffel et al., 1991). This compound inhibits the production of lymphokines from the white blood cells via calcineurin inhibition. Lymphokines are the protein mediators responsible for T and B lymphocyte stimulation, which function against infections and foreign cells (Amor et al., 2010).

According to Johnston and Holt (2011), ciclosporin is a narrow therapeutic index drug (NTID). Irreversible kidney damage occurs at high doses. As a result, therapeutic drug monitoring is essential during ciclosporin therapy. With immunosuppressant agents, low therapeutic doses may lead to acute organ rejection. In contrast, a high dose may cause nephrotoxicity and infections. Switching among and between brands and generics (same as brand product in dosage form and route of administration, with respect to quality and safety) of these drugs can lead to undesirable effects. A study compared the biopsy-proven rate of acute rejection (BPAR) at six months after kidney transplantation between the branded immunosuppressant Neoral® and the branded-generic Gengraf™. BPAR was found to be significantly higher in patients who received Gengraf™ compared to Neoral®, 39% to 25%, respectively (Taber et al., 2005). Yet, the Food and Drug Administration considers Gengraf<sup>™</sup> to be bioequivalent and interchangeable with Neoral<sup>®</sup> (Roza et al., 2002, Food and Drug Administration, 2009a). Another study compared the physiochemical properties of another generic immunosuppressant, tacrolimus with its counterpart brand Prograf®. It revealed that the dissolution, solubility and content uniformity profiles of generic formulations were different from that of Prograf® (Petan et al., 2008).

## **3.4 Pharmacokinetics and drug interactions**

## **3.4.1 Absorption**

After oral administration in man, the absorption of ciclosporin is variable. Peak plasma concentrations  $(C_{\text{max}})$  are obtained in about 1.5-3.5 h (Novartis Pharmaceuticals Corporation, 2011). Compared to an intravenous infusion, the bioavailability of the oral dose is approximately 30-40% (Bennett and Brown, 2003).

#### **3.4.1.1 Factors affecting ciclosporin absorption**

Absorption of ciclosporin can be affected by many factors such as the physiochemical properties of the drug such as pH, dosage form and physiological factors (Burckart et al.,

1986b). These physiological factors include gastric emptying rate, gastrointestinal (GI) motility, GI blood flow rate, GI pH, and first-pass metabolism. The changes in blood flow, particularly after liver transplant, may change the first-pass metabolism of the drug. Bile secretion may alter the solubilisation of ciclosporin (Postolache et al., 2002, Howland et al., 2006).

Drug-drug interactions and drug-food interactions are known to affect the GI physiological state, which can modify drug absorption. Ageing and GI disease states often lead to alterations in GI physiology and physiological reaction, resulting in further changes in the extent and rate of ciclosporin absorption. These conditions are the sources of inter- and intra-patient variability in ciclosporin absorption (Howland et al., 2006).

The oral bioavailability of ciclosporin is affected by the presence of food in the GI tract because of changes in the rate and extent of absorption. These changes occur due to gastric and bile secretion, changes in gastric motility and changes in the blood flow to the GI tract (Drewe et al., 1992). All these changes lead to alteration in the efficacy and the toxicity profile of the drug (Karalis et al., 2008).

## **3.4.2 Distribution**

When ciclosporin enters the body's circulation, it distributes into the organs and tissues. Ciclosporin distribution is unequal due to differences in blood flow to the organs, lipid solubility, capillary permeability and accumulation at other sites. The process of distribution is reversible (Ruiz-Garcia et al., 2008). The distribution rate of the drug in the tissues is determined by perfusion. Some tissues are poorly perfused, like muscles and fat, and the distribution in such tissues is very slow especially if the tissue has a high affinity for the drug (Le, 2009). Because of the lipophilicity of ciclosporin, only a small amount is distributed in blood. The distribution within the blood is lower in lymphocytes 4-9%, and granulocytes 5-12%, and higher in plasma 33-47% and erythrocytes 41-58%. Approximately 90% of the drug undergoes plasma protein binding, mainly to lipoproteins (Novartis Pharmaceuticals Corporation, 2011).
#### **3.4.3 Metabolism**

The liver is one of the major organs responsible for drug metabolism. When the drug is absorbed into the systemic circulation it undergoes biotransformation. Most of the drug metabolism occurs in the liver, although some occurs elsewhere like the intestine. Drug metabolism is by two broad categories of enzymatic reactions, known as Phase I (oxidation, reduction, and hydrolysis) and Phase II (sulfation, glucuronidation, glutathione conjugation, acetylation, amino acid conjugation and methylation) (Neber and Roe, 2001). The products of metabolism are usually more water soluble than the original compound. The elimination of a compound means that its biological half-life is reduced and hence its potential toxicity is minimized. Metabolism has an effect on the biological activity of the drug. However, in some cases like in liver dysfunction, metabolism may increase the toxicity of the drug. Metabolism plays a central role during drug disposition as it may have a major effect on it, generally by increasing polarity and therefore water solubility facilitating excretion but it may not change the half-life  $(t_{1/2})$  (period of time required for the concentration or amount of drug in the body to be reduced by one-half) (Timbrell, 2002, Verbeeck, 2008).

Ciclosporin metabolism takes place in the liver and GI tract by cytochrome CYP3A (Food and Drug Administration, 2009b), mainly by the hepatic CYP3A4 family (Howland et al., 2006, Rang et al., 2007). The metabolism includes primarily hydroxylation, demethylation, and cyclization. Thus, enzyme inducers or inhibitors of CYP3A4 alter the ciclosporin metabolism (Akhlaghi et al., 2001, Howland et al., 2006, Afshar and Nafar, 2011).

Many factors affect ciclosporin metabolism, including: species, enzyme inhibition, genetics, enzyme induction, age, dose, gender, diseases, diet, physiochemical characteristics (Craig and Stitzel, 2004, Kees et al., 2004).

### **3.4.4 Elimination**

Once absorbed, elimination of a drug or its metabolites occurs either by liver metabolism, and/or by kidney excretion. Hepatic elimination occurs primarily by the cytochrome P450 (CYP450) family of enzymes located in the hepatic endoplasmic reticulum but may also occur by non-P450 enzyme systems, such as N-acetyl and glucuronosyl transferases. P450 enzyme systems located in gut mucosa can also significantly affect the amount of drug absorbed into the systemic circulation. Many factors alter hepatic and intestinal drug metabolism; most of these factors are usually relatively stable over time (Martindale, 1996). Most of the elimination occurs in the liver and small intestine (Burckart et al., 1986a, Novartis Pharmaceuticals Corporation, 2011) with a  $t_{1/2}$  around 24 h (Rang et al., 2007). Small amounts of oral ciclosporin are eliminated by the kidney.

## **3.5 Uses, doses and adverse effects of ciclosporin**

The FDA-labelled use of ciclosporin is for prophylaxis to prevent organ rejection in kidney, liver and heart transplantation. It is also indicated for use in severe rheumatoid arthritis and psoriasis (Food and Drug Administration, 2011b). Other uses include atopic dermatitis, severe autoimmune disease, lupus nephritis, and severe ulcerative colitis.

The initial oral dose of ciclosporin should be 4-12 h post-transplant. The total daily dose should be divided twice daily. For renal transplant patients:  $9 \pm 3$  mg/kg/day, liver transplant patients:  $8 \pm 4$  mg/kg/day, heart transplant patients:  $7 \pm 3$  mg/kg/day. For rheumatoid arthritis, starting dose: 2.5 mg/kg/day and may be increased by 0.5-0.75 mg/kg/day up to maximum 4 mg/kg/day. The dose for psoriasis starts at 2.5 mg/kg/day, and may be increased by 0.5 mg/kg/day up to a maximum 4 mg/kg/day. Adverse reactions include: hypertension, hirsutism, renal dysfunction, and hypomagnesaemia (UpToDate, 2011).

## **3.6 Therapeutic drug monitoring of ciclosporin**

Therapeutic drug monitoring (TDM) is required to enhance drug therapy in patients and it differs from one drug to another. Therapeutically monitored drugs should have a clear relationship between the drug concentration and the effect (Johnston and Holt, 1999b).

Clinical findings have shown that the therapeutic window for ciclosporin is narrow. For example, in kidney transplant patients ciclosporin therapeutic range during the first month should be from 1600 – 2000 ng/mL (Table 3.1), (Schiff et al., 2007). Therefore, monitoring of the blood concentrations of the drug and drug metabolites is considered essential in dose adjustment for high efficacy and lower toxicity (Yatscoff, 1991). In addition to having narrow therapeutic index (NTI), oral ciclosporin has a large intra- and inter-individual variability in absorption and metabolism (Holt et al., 2000, Keown, 2002).

The best way to monitor ciclosporin remains debatable (Yatscoff, 1991, Andrews and Cramb, 2002, Einollahi et al., 2011). Data suggested that single-point measurement of plasma ciclosporin after 2 h (C2) post dose can be a fast and effective method (Keown, 2002). C2 monitoring is considered to be one of the ways to measure ciclosporin concentration in kidney and liver transplant patients (Johnston and Holt, 2001, Einollahi et al., 2011, Rostami and Einollahi, 2011). The target C2 level in early treatment for kidney and liver transplant are 1500 ng/mL and 1700 ng/mL respectively (Brunet et al., 2004, Schuetz et al., 2005).

Table 3.1: Target range of ciclosporin for kidney transplant patients (Adopted from (Schiff et al., 2007)



# **3.7 Experimental method development for ciclosporin analysis**

## **3.7.1 Material and methods**

### **3.7.1.1 General chemicals**

Please see chapter 2 (section 2.2)

### **3.7.1.2 General equipment**

Please see chapter 2 (section  $2.3$ )

#### **3.7.1.3 Collection of drug samples**

All brand samples were manufactured by Novartis in Switzerland (T, S, E, J, and P) and then repackaged in the imported country. Both generics (C and I) were manufactured in India (Table 3.2).

Table 3.2: Doses and sources of ciclosporin soft gelatine capsules

Drug, dose and code	<b>Obtained from</b>
Ciclosporin 100 mg $(S)^*$	Government hospital, Jeddah, Saudi Arabia
Ciclosporin 100 mg $(T)^*$	Commercial pharmacy, Istanbul, Turkey
Ciclosporin 100 mg $(P)^*$	Commercial pharmacy, Karachi, Pakistan
Ciclosporin $100 \text{ mg}$ (C)	Commercial pharmacy, Colombia
Ciclosporin $100 \text{ mg}$ (I)	Commercial pharmacy, India
Ciclosporin 50 mg $(J)^*$	Commercial pharmacy, Amman, Jordan
Ciclosporin 50 mg $(E)^*$	Commercial pharmacy, Cairo, Egypt
$\sqrt{4}$ 1 1 1	

 $(* = \text{branded})$ 

### **3.7.2 Extraction by dissolution**

A dissolution method *in-vitro* gives the information about the capsule rupture and drug release. The dissolved sample can be used to measure the actual mass of ciclosporin in branded versus generic ciclosporin capsules.

A dissolution method to analyse ciclosporin capsules was obtained from the US Pharmacopeia. Seven ciclosporin capsules were included in this study. Each capsule was weighed to check the dosage uniformity. The dissolution test was carried out under the following conditions: Temp:  $37.5^{\circ}C \pm 0.5$ , 500 mL deionized water used as a medium, the paddle apparatus (Apparatus 2): 50 rpm, sampling time at (5, 10, 15, 30, 60, and 90 min), with 5 mL volume for each sample. The samples were filtered using 20  $\mu$ m filters.

## **3.7.3 HPLC experimental method development**

#### **3.7.3.1 Identification of the Lambda max (λmax) for ciclosporin measurement**

A standard ciclosporin solution of 2 mg/mL was used to detect the  $\lambda_{\text{max}}$ .  $\lambda_{\text{max}}$  is the wavelength at which the maximum fraction of light is absorbed by a solution. The spectrum was compared to an acetonitrile blank, which was used as a baseline. The scan range of the spectrophotometer was set from 190 nm to 400 nm to detect maximum absorbance for ciclosporin throughout this range.

In order to determine the best absorbance wavelength for detection. Ciclosporin (2 mg/mL) in methanol was scanned using a spectrophotometer (Jenway 6715 UV/Vis). The spectrum generated showed that absorbance of ciclosporin starts at 180 nm and ends at about 250 nm (Figure 3.2). The highest absorbance was between 205 and 215 nm. Based on this result, the absorbance at 210 nm was used to detect ciclosporin in all subsequent experiments.



Figure 3.2: UV absorbance wavelength for 2 mg/mL ciclosporin in methanol

#### **3.7.3.2 Selection of columns**

The hydrocarbon chain forming the hydrophobic phase is usually a hydrocarbon of eighteen (C18), eight (C8) or four (C4) carbons. Peptides need longer hydrophobic chain lengths to be resolved (Carr, 2002). Various C18 columns were tested to get a good separation of ciclosporin by the HPLC method. The ACE 5 column showed the best results. All subsequent development was undertaken on this column.

#### **3.7.3.3 Optimisation of column temperature for separation of ciclosporin**

Based on literature review and the US Pharmacopeia the effect of different column temperatures on ciclosporin retention were investigated. Temperatures studied were 25 °C (Figure 3.3), 75 °C (Figure 3.4), and 50 °C (Figure 3.5). The best retention was obtained at 50 °C.



Figure 3.3: Chromatogram showing ciclosporin standard, column temperature at 25 °C



Figure 3.4: Chromatogram showing ciclosporin standard, column temperature at 75 °C



Figure 3.5: Typical chromatograms showing ciclosporin standards using the HPLC method, flow rate 0.7 mL/min, column temperature 50 °C

#### **3.7.3.4 Optimisation of flow rate**

In order to optimise the flow rate, different flow rates were studied to obtain the best resolution and peak shape, mL/min (Figure 3.6), 1.2 mL/min (Figure 3.7), and 0.7 mL/min (Figure 3.10). The best resolution was found at 0.7 mL/min.



Figure 3.6: Chromatogram showing ciclosporin standard at 1 mL/min flow rate



Figure 3.7: Chromatogram showing ciclosporin standard at 1.2 mL/min flow rate

#### **3.7.3.5 Preparation of stock, calibration solutions and control samples**

Ciclosporin stock solution (2 mg/mL) was prepared in the mobile phase and stored at −20ºC. The ciclosporin calibration standards were freshly prepared at the time of the experiment. Eight concentrations of ciclosporin  $(0.1, 0.2, 0.4, 0.6, 0.8, 1, 1.5, \text{and } 2 \text{ mg/mL})$ were prepared in the mobile phase.

## **3.7.4 Calibration and linearity**

Calibration standards (0.1–2 mg/mL) were injected into the HPLC system. The integrated peak areas of the ciclosporin were recorded. Linear regression of the standards was done using Microsoft Excel 2010, by plotting the peak area of ciclosporin against the ciclosporin concentration of the standards. The linearity was checked by calculating R-squared  $(R^2)$ which is a statistical measure used to calculate how close the data are to the fitted regression line values using least-square linear regression analysis.

UV detection at 210 nm was used to determine for the linearity of ciclosporin in the HPLC system. The retention of ciclosporin was achieved using the method and a typical ciclosporin chromatogram is shown in figure 3.10. A symmetrical peak shape with retention time of 13.8 min corresponded to ciclosporin retention time. The peak areas of the ciclosporin standards were 46, 92.3, 183, 275, 367, 459, 688, 916 mV.min for 0.1, 0.2,





Figure 3.8: Standard curve for ciclosporin standards in mobile phase showing linear calibration line  $r^2 = 1$  using the HPLC system (Test A)



Figure 3.9: Linear regression residuals for ciclosporin standards, less than 5%

### **3.7.5 Method sensitivity**

The detection limit of ciclosporin is the lowest concentration that can be detected using this method. The upper limit of detection is given by the point where the detector response deviates by 1% from the expected linear response.

On seven different days, the mean concentration measured of the lowest standard (0.1 mg/mL) (Figure 3.10) was  $0.09 \pm 0.01$  mg/mL with (CV) of 11.84 %. The highest standard was  $2.01 \pm 0.08$  mg/mL with a (CV) of 4.22 % (Table 3.3).



Figure 3.10: Chromatogram for the lowest ciclosporin concentration (0.1 mg/mL) at 50 °C, flow rate 0.7 mL/min

Table 3.3: Sensitivity test of ciclosporin standard showing the concentration of low and high standards on different days



#### **3.7.6 Method specificity**

The method specificity was investigated by injecting blank mobile phase before the start of each run. The blank standards were used to control for any interfering peaks that elute at the same retention time as ciclosporin. The interfering peaks might arise from the mobile phase or the extraction process.

The method for measuring ciclosporin was specific. Blank mobile phase samples were used before, between and after each run. No significant interfering peaks and no presence of any carried over ciclosporin at the migration time of ciclosporin samples (Figure 3.11).



Figure 3.11: Example chromatogram to show there is no interfering peak before running ciclosporin samples. Between and after samples chromatograms also showed no interfering peaks

# **3.7.7 Coefficient of variation**

Each ciclosporin calibration standard peak area was divided by its concentration in order to calculate the slope of the standard curve. The average and the standard deviation of the slope of all calibration standards were then calculated. Then the intra-day co-efficient of variation (CV) of this calibration line was calculated.

100 average of the slope  $CV\% = \frac{\text{standard deviation of slope}}{2 \times \frac{1}{2}} \times$ 

Equation 1: Calculation of coefficient of variation for ciclosporin calibration peak

## **3.7.8 Precision**

#### **3.7.8.1 Intra-day variability**

Ciclosporin standards at 0.1, 0.2, 0.4, 0.6, 0.8, 1, 1.5, and 2 mg were injected into the HPLC system on the same day. Table 3.4 shows the actual and measured concentrations for these samples, average, standard deviation, and the correlation of variation percentage.

Table 3.4: The mean, standard deviation  $(\pm SD)$  and the coefficient of variation (CV) for the intra-day variability for ciclosporin assay standard at 0.1, 0.2, 0.4, 0.6, 0.8, 1, 1.5, and 2 mg/mL



Intra-day variability was acceptable for ciclosporin across the standard range (<4%).

### **3.7.8.2 Inter-day variability**

Ciclosporin standards at 0.1, 0.2, 0.4, 0.6, 0.8, 1, 1.5, and 2 mg were injected into the HPLC system. Table 3.5 shows the hypothetical and measured concentrations by HPLC analysis for these samples over six different days along with the average, standard deviation, and the coefficient of variation percentage.

Table 3.5: The mean, standard deviation  $(\pm SD)$  and the coefficient of variation (CV) for the inter-day variability for ciclosporin assay standards at 0.1, 0.2, 0.4, 0.6, 0.8, 1, 1.5, and 2 mg/mL

Conc.	Day1	Day2	Day3	Day4	Day <sub>5</sub>	Day6	Mean	$\pm SD$	$CV\%$
(mg/mL)									
0.1	0.10	0.09	0.10	0.09	0.10	0.10	0.10	0.001	1.41
0.2	0.20	0.20	0.21	0.20	0.21	0.20	0.20	0.005	2.45
0.4	0.38	0.39	0.40	0.39	0.40	0.38	0.39	0.013	3.18
0.6	0.62	0.61	0.57	0.61	0.57	0.62	0.60	0.020	3.35
0.8	0.82	0.81	0.82	0.81	0.82	0.82	0.82	0.003	0.33
	1.01	1.01	1.02	1.01	1.02	1.01	1.02	0.006	0.59
1.5	1.51	l.49	1.46	1.49	1.46	1.51	1.49	0.018	1.23
$\mathbf{2}$	1.97	.98	2.00	1.98	2.00	1.97	1.98	0.014	0.68

Inter-day variability was acceptable for ciclosporin across the standard range  $(< 5\%$ ).

#### **3.7.9 Inaccuracy**

The inaccuracy of the assay was determined by measuring the difference between actual (hypothetical) and measured concentration of each ciclosporin calibration standard. The concentration difference was then divided by the actual concentration and multiplied by 100 (Equation 2).

Inaccuracy = 
$$
\frac{\text{Actual concentration - measured concentration}}{\text{Actual concentration}} \times 100
$$

Equation 2: Inaccuracy percentage calculations of hypothetical and measured ciclosporin concentrations

The inaccuracy of the method was measured by calculating the difference between actual and measured concentration of each ciclosporin calibration standard (Table 3.6).

Conc.	Day 1	Day 2	Day 3	Day 4	Day 5	Day 6	Average	$\pm SD$
(mg/mL)								
0.1	$-32.69$	0.19	2.98	0.19	2.98	1.70	$-4.10$	14
0.2	$-29.27$	0.12	5.41	0.12	5.41	1.15	$-2.83$	13
0.4	$-23.97$	0.90	2.38	0.90	2.38	4.66	$-2.12$	11
0.6	11.65	1.93	3.75	1.93	3.75	3.38	4.40	$\overline{4}$
0.8	2.24	2.26	3.01	2.26	3.01	2.52	2.55	$\Omega$
1	$-1.96$	1.64	2.94	1.64	2.94	1.96	1.52	$\overline{2}$
1.5	$-18.14$	0.53	2.05	0.53	2.05	0.69	$-2.04$	8
$\overline{2}$	10.62	0.61	0.11	0.61	0.11	1.41	2.24	$\overline{4}$

Table 3.6: Inaccuracy of the assay was < 4% of the true value at standard curve concentrations range from 0.1 to 2 mg/mL of ciclosporin

On the first day the inaccuracy of the 3 lowest concentrations was above the acceptable level due to an unknown reason. However in the subsequent 6 experiments the inaccuracies were within the acceptable range (less than 15%).

#### **3.7.10 HPLC system carryover**

The system carryover was checked by running blank samples between actual samples. The blank sample was checked for the presence of any carried over ciclosporin. Calibration standards were also randomised and the calibration curve linearity was then checked in order to detect any carryover.

### **3.7.11 Statistical analysis and graphic presentation**

Graphic presentations and the statistical analyses were done using Excel 2010 for Windows version, 14.0.6112.500 (32-bit) and Minitab version, 16.

## **3.7.12 Dissolution extraction recovery**

The recovery was calculated by dividing the actual volume over the total volume and then multiplied by the concentration (Equation 3).

Concentrat ion Total volume  $\text{Recovery} = \frac{\text{Actual volume}}{\text{Im}(1.1 \text{ m/s})} \times$ 

Equation 3: Recovery calculation of ciclosporin standards

## **3.7.13 Stability**

Freeze thaw stability was done for three ciclosporin calibration standards stored at −20C, thawed and re-frozen weekly for three weeks.

This test was to check the stability of ciclosporin standards in stock solutions. Ciclosporin standards were stable for the whole period of the experiment. Two different concentrations of 0.4 and 0.6 mg from day 2, 4, and 6 were measured (Table 3.7).

Table 3.7: The average concentration  $(\pm SD)$  and coefficient of variation (CV) of ciclosporin stability in stock solution for day 2, 4 and 6



Table 3.8: The inaccuracy of ciclosporin stability in stock solution for day 2, 4 and 6

<b>Inaccuracy</b> (mg/mL)	Day 2	Day 4	Day 6	Average	$\pm SD$
0.4	0.90	0.90	4.66	ل 1 .	1 <sub>7</sub> $\sim$ $\sim$ $\sim$ $\sim$
0.6	1.93	1.93	3.38	2.41	$_{0.84}$

The ciclosporin standards were stable for freeze-thaw cycles. Average measured concentration for 3 cycles of 0.4 and 0.6 mg of ciclosporin was 0.39 and 0.61 respectively (Table 3.7). The CV% of 0.4 and 0.6 mg of ciclosporin standards were less than 3%. Inaccuracy of measured concentration was less than  $\pm$  3% (Table 3.8).

# **Chapter 4. Application of the HPLC method to the measurement of ciclosporin from different countries**

## **4.1 Overall description of the method**

This study describes the development, validation and application of a simple HPLC method for the determination of ciclosporin. Seven ciclosporin products were obtained from commercial pharmacies and hospitals for inclusion in this study.

Ciclosporin capsules were dissolved in dissolution tester. Samples were obtained at different time intervals. The contents of the dissolved sample were separated by injecting 20 µL of the samples into the HPLC system. The column was held at  $50 \pm 0.3$ °C. The  $\lambda_{\text{max}}$ for ciclosporin at 210 nm.

# **4.2 Results of HPLC method for ciclosporin capsules (Test A)**

## **4.2.1 Dissolution test for ciclosporin**

The capsule rupture was determined by visual observation of the capsule shell and/or by the release of capsule content. Rupturing time was determined for each capsule by using a stopwatch. The results from the dissolution test showed that the average rupture times for ciclosporin capsules of generic C, brand T, brand J, brand E, generic I, brand P and brand S were (mean  $\pm$  SD) 1.56  $\pm$  0.02, 5.07  $\pm$  0.02, 5.11  $\pm$  0.01, 5.29  $\pm$  0.02, 5.34  $\pm$  0.03, 5.37  $\pm$ 0.02 and  $5.43 \pm 0.02$  min, respectively, (n = 4). A sample of medium was tested using HPLC before putting the capsule into the vessel to insure no ciclosporin contamination of the medium. The chromatogram shows that there was no ciclosporin peak (Figure 4.1) and confirms the absence of ciclosporin in the medium. In this study all the capsules met the USP requirements, rupturing within 15 min (Table 4.1).



Figure 4.1: Chromatogram of medium sample showing no ciclosporin contamination of the dissolution tester





Figure 4.2, shows a typical chromatogram of ciclosporin concentrations in 5 different capsules (Brands S, T, and P, Generics I, and C) which were detected at the same retention time. Although, standard ciclosporin gives one peak, while in some tested capsules more peaks can be seen.



Retention Time (min)

Figure 4.2: A typical overlaid chromatogram showing the varying ciclosporin concentration in 5 different capsules (Brands S, T, and P, Generics I, and C)

## **4.2.2 Drug recovery (from capsules)**

This was done in order to confirm that the dissolution test successfully recovered all the capsule content after 60 and 90 min.

Maximal recovery (99  $\pm$  0.4%) was after 60 min. Recovery after 90 min was  $100 \pm 0.5\%$ (Table 4.2).

Table 4.2: The average recovery percentage of ciclosporin mass amount after 60 and 90 min of the dissolution test  $(n = 4)$ 



## **4.2.3 Final results of Test A**

This method was successfully applied to measure the actual concentration in each ciclosporin product using HPLC analysis. Sampling time was done on six different intervals in order to check for ciclosporin release from capsules. All brands (T, S, E, J, P) and one generic (C) showed more than 80% of labelled amount in ciclosporin capsules after 90 min of the dissolution test giving  $100 \pm 0.05$ ,  $90 \pm 0.07$ ,  $81 \pm 0.04$ ,  $83 \pm 0.05$ ,  $90$  $\pm$  0.03, and 91  $\pm$  0.01 % ( $\pm$ SD), respectively. One generic (I), showed less than the minimum percentage of labelled amount  $69 \pm 0.08\%$  (Figure 4.3). Relative to the brand (T), statistical analysis showed significant differences ( $p<0.0001$ ) of the mean percentage content between brand and generic, the 95% confidence interval (CI) range for the brands (S, E, J, P) were (80.1-101.8), (72.2-91.8), (73.4-93.3), (80.2-101.9), respectively, and (80.3-102.1), (61.3-77.9), for the generic (C) and (I), respectively (Table 4.4).

Drug	Country of	Average	Sampling time (min) and Average content $\%$ , n = 4									
<b>Name</b>	Origin	weight $(g), n = 4$	5 min	$10$ min	15min	<b>30 min</b>	$60$ min	<b>90 min</b>				
$Neoral^{\circledR*}$	Turkey	1.50	$6.7\%$	55.8%	98.3%	98.6%	98.8%	$100.0\%$				
Neoral <sup>®*</sup>	Saudi	1.51	$0.4\%$	57.8%	85.0%	91.9%	88.4%	90.4%				
$Neoral^{\circledR}$	Jordan	1.67	$3.2\%$	65.3%	77.6%	80.5%	84.2%	82.8%				
Neoral <sup>®</sup>	Egypt	1.69	$3.1\%$	13.5%	55.7%	74.8%	76.2%	81.4%				
$Neoral^{\circledR*}$	Pakistan	1.50	$6.9\%$	79.2%	93.3%	89.3%	91.3%	$90.4\%$				
Generic $C^*$	Colombia	1.32	85.0%	94.7%	88.0%	89.5%	86.1%	90.5%				
Generic I*	India	1.60	4.6%	47.8%	72.0%	65.7%	68.9%	69.3%				

Table 4.3: Average percentage content of ciclosporin in capsules (Test A)

\*Ciclosporin 100 mg capsules. Jordan and Egypt capsules contain 50 mg

Table 4.3 shows the average percentage of ciclosporin mass amount at different time intervals, reference capsule (Turkey) showed 100% mass amount after 90 min,  $(n = 4)$ 



Figure 4.3: Percentage of dissolved ciclosporin in brands and generics

Table 4.4: The average percentage of ciclosporin mass amount, standard deviation, coefficient of variation and 95% CI based on reference capsule (T) 100% mass amount,  $(n = 4)$ 



Table 4.4 shows that ciclosporin has variable mass labelled amount compared to the reference capsule. Even with brand capsules, ciclosporin showed variability. One generic failed to meet the minimum requirement, indicating availability of substandard and/or counterfeit ciclosporin in the market.

# **4.3 Dissolution test for ciclosporin Test B**

Same method (Test A) was applied to obtain more precise results with the following modifications: Eight ciclosporin products were included in this study, tested capsules to (n = 5), peak area measurement adjustment of HPLC system, area calculated as (mV.s) instead of (mV.min), and the sampling times increased up to 120 min to included two additional points.

The results from the dissolution test showed that the rupture times for ciclosporin capsules of generic (Col), brand (Egy), generic (Ir), brand (Jor), generic (M), brand (Pak), brand (Sa) and brand (TK), showed that they all met the USP requirements, rupturing within 15 min.

## **4.3.1 Standard curve and linearity**

Figure 4.4 shows a typical standard curve for ciclosporin. Coefficient of correlation ranged between 0.997 and 1. The mean slope was  $55.5 \pm 0.4$  mV/mg for ciclosporin (n = 8).



Figure 4.4: Standard curve for ciclosporin standards in mobile phase showing linear calibration line  $r^2 = 1$  (Test B)

## **4.3.2 Sensitivity**

On eight different days, the mean concentration measured of the lower standard (25 mg/L) was  $22.3 \pm 0.97$  mg/L with a CV of 4.4%, and for the highest standard (500 mg/L) it was 500.4  $\pm$  2.6 mg/L with a CV of 0.5% (Table 4.5).



Table 4.5: Sensitivity test of ciclosporin standard showing the concentration of low and high standards on different days (Test B)

## **4.3.3 Specificity**

The method was specific. There were no significant interfering peaks before, between and after each run.

## **4.3.4 Precision**

#### **4.3.4.1 Intra-day variability**

Ciclosporin standards at 25, 50, 100, 200, 400, and 500 mg/L were injected into the HPLC system on the same day. Table 4.6 shows the actual and measured concentration for these samples, average, standard deviation, and the correlation of variation percentage.

Table 4.6: The average, standard deviation  $(\pm SD)$  and the coefficient of variation (CV) for the intra-day variability for ciclosporin assay standard at 25, 50, 100, 200, 400, and 500 mg/L



Intra-day variability was acceptable for ciclosporin across the standard range  $(\leq 2\%)$ 

#### **4.3.4.2 Inter-day variability**

Ciclosporin standards at 25, 50, 100, 200, 400 and 500 mg/L were injected into the HPLC system. Table 4.7 shows the hypothetical and measured concentration by HPLC analysis for these samples over eight different days along with the average, standard deviation, and the coefficient of variation percentage.

Table 4.7: The average, standard deviation  $(\pm SD)$  and the coefficient of variation (CV) for the inter-day variability for ciclosporin assay standards at 25, 50, 100, 200, 400, and 500 mg/L



Inter-day variability was acceptable for ciclosporin across the standard range  $(\leq 11\%)$ 

#### **4.3.5 Inaccuracy**

The inaccuracy of the method was measured by calculating the difference between the actual and measured concentration of each ciclosporin calibration standard (Table 4.8)



Table 4.8: Inaccuracy of the assay was < 13% of the true value at standard curve concentrations ranging from 25 to 500 mg/L of ciclosporin

## **4.3.6 Drug recovery from capsules**

This was done in order to confirm that the dissolution test successfully recovered all the capsule content after 90 and 120 min. Maximal recovery ( $100 \pm 0.03\%$ ) was after 90 min. Recovery after 120 min was  $100 \pm 0.01\%$  (Table 4.9).

Table 4.9: The average recovery percentage of ciclosporin mass amount after 90 and 120 min of the dissolution test  $(n = 5)$ 



### **4.3.7 Stability**

This test was done to check the stability of ciclosporin standards in stock solutions. Ciclosporin standards were stable for the whole period of the experiment. Two different concentrations of 50 and 200 mg/L from day 2, 4, and 6 were measured (Table 4.10).

The ciclosporin standards were stable for freeze-thaw cycles. The average measured concentration for 3 cycles of 50 and 200 mg/L of ciclosporin was 49.45 and 200.44 mg/mL, respectively. The CV% of 50 and 200 mg/L ciclosporin standards was less than 1%. Inaccuracy of the measured concentration was less than  $\pm 2\%$ .

Table 4.10: The average concentration  $(\pm SD)$  and coefficient of variation  $(CV)$ ciclosporin stability in stock solution for day 2, 4, and 6

$Conc.$ (mg/L)	Dav 2	Day 4	Day 6	Average	$\pm SD$	$\mathrm{CV}_0$
50	49.18	49.30	49.88	49.45	0.37	$\alpha$ $\pi$ v. 1 J
200	199.04	202.60	199.69	200.44	1.90	0.95

#### **4.3.8 Final results of Test B**

The same method was successfully applied to measure the actual concentration in each ciclosporin product using HPLC analysis. Sampling time was done on nine different intervals in order to check for ciclosporin release from capsules. All brands (TK, Sa, Egy, Jor, Pak) and two generics (Col, Ir) showed more than 80% of labelled amount in ciclosporin capsules after 90 min of the dissolution test giving  $100 \pm 0.03$ ,  $99 \pm 0.02$ ,  $92 \pm 0.02$ 0.01,  $84 \pm 0.09$ ,  $94 \pm 0.08$ ,  $85 \pm 0.02$  % and  $97 \pm 0.02$  ( $\pm$ SD), respectively. One generic (M), showed less than the minimum percentage of labelled amount  $54 \pm 0.10\%$  (Figure 4.5). Table 4.11 shows the average percentage of ciclosporin mass amount at different time intervals, reference capsule (Turkey) showed 100% mass amount after 90 min,  $(n = 5)$ . Relative to the brand (TK), statistical analysis showed significant differences (p<0.0001) of the mean percentage content between brand and generic, the 95% CI range for the brands (Sa, Egy, Jor, Pak) were (97-102), (90-93), (72-95), and (85-103), respectively, and (83- 87), (94-99), (41-67) for the generics (Col, Ir, M) respectively (Table 4.12).

Drug name	Country of origin	Average weight			Sampling time (min) and average content $\%$ , n = 5							
		$(g)$ , n = 5	5	10	15	20	30	45	60	90	120	
Neoral $\mathbb{R}^*$	Turkey	1.50	$\overline{4}$	60	81	93	97	98	99	100	100	
			$\frac{0}{0}$	$\frac{0}{0}$	$\frac{0}{0}$	$\frac{0}{0}$	$\frac{0}{0}$	$\frac{0}{0}$	$\frac{0}{0}$	$\frac{0}{0}$	$\frac{0}{0}$	
Neoral $\mathbb{R}^*$	Saudi	1.50	2	53	71	88	92	96	97	99	99	
			$\frac{0}{0}$	$\frac{0}{0}$	$\frac{0}{0}$	$\frac{0}{0}$	$\frac{0}{0}$	$\frac{0}{0}$	$\frac{0}{0}$	$\frac{0}{0}$	$\frac{0}{0}$	
Neoral@	Jordan	1.68	6	68	79	80	80	79	83	84	84	
			$\frac{0}{0}$	$\frac{0}{0}$	$\frac{0}{0}$	$\frac{0}{0}$	$\frac{0}{0}$	$\frac{0}{0}$	$\frac{0}{0}$	$\frac{0}{0}$	$\frac{0}{0}$	
<b>Neoral®</b>	Egypt	1.68	6	14	67	80	84	88	89	92	91	
			$\frac{0}{0}$	$\frac{0}{0}$	$\frac{0}{0}$	$\frac{0}{0}$	$\frac{0}{0}$	$\frac{0}{0}$	$\%$	$\frac{0}{0}$	$\frac{0}{0}$	
Neoral <sup>®*</sup>	Pakistan	1.49	2	72	86	89	93	95	95	94	93	
			$\frac{0}{0}$	$\frac{0}{0}$	$\frac{0}{0}$	$\frac{0}{0}$	$\frac{0}{0}$	$\frac{0}{0}$	$\%$	$\frac{0}{0}$	$\frac{0}{0}$	
Generic	Colombia	1.32	81	87	88	87	88	87	87	85	83	
$Col*$			$\frac{0}{0}$	$\frac{0}{0}$	$\frac{0}{0}$	$\frac{0}{0}$	$\frac{0}{0}$	$\frac{0}{0}$	$\frac{0}{0}$	$\frac{0}{0}$	$\frac{0}{0}$	
Generic		1.55	3	44	72	83	93	98	99	97	95	
$Ir*$	Iran		$\frac{0}{0}$	$\frac{0}{0}$	$\frac{0}{0}$	$\frac{0}{0}$	$\frac{0}{0}$	$\frac{0}{0}$	$\%$	$\frac{0}{0}$	$\frac{0}{0}$	
Generic	Morocco	1.61	$\Omega$	33	51	55	55	57	58	54	56	
$M^*$			$\frac{0}{0}$	$\frac{0}{0}$	$\frac{0}{0}$	$\frac{0}{0}$	$\frac{0}{0}$	$\frac{0}{0}$	$\frac{0}{0}$	$\frac{0}{0}$	$\frac{0}{0}$	

Table 4.11: Average percentage content of ciclosporin in capsules (Test B)

\*Ciclosporin 100 mg capsules. Jordan and Egypt capsules contain 50 mg



Figure 4.5: Percentage dissolved ciclosporin in brand and generics  $(n = 5)$ 

Table 4.12: The average percentage of ciclosporin mass amount, standard deviation, coefficient of variation and 95% CI based on reference capsule (TK) 100% mass amount,  $(n = 5)$ 



# **4.4 UHPLC-MS detection of impurities in ciclosporin capsules generic (Col)**

The chemical contents of ciclosporin capsules (Generic Col) were studied using an untargeted metabolomic UHPLC-MS-based approach. Then, all the chemical contents of generic (Col) capsules were compared to a reference capsule, brand (TK), (reference product). A representative TIC is shown in figure 4.6 for the reference compund TK. In particular, one impurity was detected at 8 min with high ciclosporin/impurity peak ratio suggesting a clean product. In contrast, figure 4.7 shows poor prodcut with multiple impurities at 2, 3, 4, 9 and 11 min with very small ciclospotin/impurities peak ratios indicating a poor quality product. In addition, one of the impurities at 9.8 min had a putative identity of N-(8-Aminooctyl)-N5-(diaminomethylene)-L-ornithinamide, an amino acid which could be related to ciclosporin polypeptide.



Figure 4.6: The LC-MS total ion chromatogram (TIC) of an example of a relatively clean product with a clear ciclosporin peak at 12 min and small impurity at 8 min



Figure 4.7: The LC-MS TIC of an example of a poor product with small peak of ciclosporin at 12 min and high impurity at 9 min

Figure 4.8 shows clear separation between the samples derived from the generic product (generic Col) compared to the reference product (TK) using principal component analysis (PCA). PCA is an unsupervised multivariate analysis aimed at reducing high-dimensional data into fewer dimensions called principal components (PCs). Each dimension is called a PC, which represents a linear combination of original variables. The first PC is the component that accounts for the highest variability in the data. Then, each subsequent PC accounts for the remaining data variability.



Figure 4.8: Principal component analysis (PCA) of brand (TK) and generic (Col) showing sample clustering. There was clear separation indicating these capsules have a different chemical content

In Figure 4.8, generic (Col) was compared to the reference (TK) using PC1 versus PC2. The five capsule samples derived from generic (Col) clustered together and circled with red line indicating reproducibility between different capsules except for capsule no. 4 which clustered away from main cluster indicating a difference in chemical content from other generic (Col) capsules. On the other hand, the five reference brand (TK) capsules clustered in a smaller cluster compared to (Col) cluster indicating a more homogenous content and better reproducibility between capsules.

Figure 4.9, shows a heatmap and hierarchical clustering for the top 200 metabolomic features that were variably expressed between brand (TK) and generic (Col). The heatmap shows clearly that the top features belong to two different clusters. Some features were present in brand (TK) and absent in generic (Col), whereas others were present in generic (Col) and absent in brand (TK). This confirms the different chemical contents of the two compared drug formulations.



Figure 4.9: Heatmap of brand (TK) and generic (Col) showing hierarchical clustering of top metabolomic features that were variably expressed between brand TK and generic Col.

Table 4.13 shows the preliminary identifications for the impurities found in generic (Col) compared to brand (TK). A 261 fold difference in sorbitol concentrations was detected in the generic capsules  $(p<0.0001)$ .

In addition, contamination with zizyphine A (a plant extract "Ziziphus jujube, Ziziphus vulgaris"), delcorine (an alkaloid, derived during amination reaction in cyclosporin A synthesis) and 2-Oxooctadecanoic acid (an inactive ingredient derived from an oil source) (Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes, 2015) was found. Of note, zizyphine A, is a cyclopeptide product of the central Asian plant Ziziphus oenoplia. Although generic (Col) is a product from South America, however, it is manufactured in central Asia. This specific contaminant confirms the manufacturer origin of the generic  $(Col)$  capsules  $(p<0.001)$ , (see appendix 2 for full list of chemical contaminants detected in all generic capsules compared to brand TK).



Table 4.13: Preliminary MS identification of impurities found in generic Col versus brand TK in positive and negative mode

\*Theoretical mass data obtained from METLIN: Metabolite Search (https://metlin.scripps.edu/metabo\_advanced.php).

Ziziphus is a natural herb used for many aliments and enhancements. Ziziphus produces cyclopeptide alkaloids known as ziziphines and has been used in Chinese herbal medicine and Ayurvedic Indian medicine for many years. It is known to help with relieving stress, purifying the blood, improving the immune system, treating bronchitis, anaemia, irritability, diarrhoea, fatigue, ulcers and even the leaves are used to treat chickenpox, smallpox, measles and many more diseases. It is also used as a weight gainer and to increase muscular strength and endurance. It is often administered when patients experience restless sleeping behaviours, anxiety, reduced memory (forgetfulness) and trouble concentrating (Burton, 2008). Some external uses of the bark can be used to make an eyewash to reduce inflammation (Chen et al., 2015).

# **4.5 Conclusions**

This study represents a simple, rapid, specific and sensitive HPLC method for the determination of an immunosuppressive drug ciclosporin. This method was used successfully to determine of ciclosporin mass amount in brand versus generic capsules.

This study showed that some ciclosporin capsules contain less than the labelled amount. According to the USP a minimum of 80% of labelled amount of ciclosporin should dissolved in 90 min (USP 35, 2012). In this study the ciclosporin capsules from India and Morocco failed to achieve this. Even within the same brand, but from different countries, there were differences in the average content within the acceptable limits. Some ciclosporin products may contain less than the dose required to achieve a therapeutic effect. This may be harmful for patients especially those using NTIDs such as ciclosporin. Irreversible kidney damage could occur at high doses of this drug (Johnston & Holt, 2001) and acute rejection at the lower therapeutic doses. Overall, switching among and between brand and generic ciclosporin can lead to undesirable effects.

Based on the results from the impurity test, we conclude that some of the ciclosporin preparations were found to be contaminated with plant products. This indicates problems with ciclosporin pharmaceutical production, and these could lead to harmful clinical effect on patients.

# **Chapter 5. Development and application of a UHPLC-MS/MS method for azithromycin**

## **5.1 Introduction**

Late in 2013, the FDA launched a warning about a possible fatal side effect of azithromycin. This medication may cause abnormal changes in the electrical activity of the heart. Azithromycin is a macrolide antibiotic belonging to the azalide group. It is used to treat some bacterial infections such as pneumonia, gonorrhoea, sinus and skin. Both brand and generics of azithromycin are available worldwide in different dosage forms.

# **5.2 Azithromycin**

Azithromycin (Sumamed, Zithromax, Zmax) was discovered in 1980 in Croatia by Pliva pharmaceutical company. In 2010, it had become one of the most prescribed antibiotics in United States clinics (Bach and Žubrinić, 2013).

Chemically, azithromycin is described as: (2R,3S,4R,5R,8R,10R,11R,12S,13S,14R)-11-  $[(2S, 3R, 4S, 6R)$ -4-(dimethylamino)-3-hydroxy-6-methyloxan-2-yl]oxy-2-ethyl-3,4,10trihydroxy-13-[(2R,4R,5S,6S)-5-hydroxy-4-methoxy-4,6-dimethyloxan-2-yl]oxy-3,5,6,8,10,12,14-heptamethyl-1-oxa-6-azacyclopentadecan-15-one (Figure 5.1).



Figure 5.1: Azithromycin chemical structure (National Center for Biotechnology Information, 2005)
#### **5.2.1 Indications**

Azithromycin is a widely used antibiotic for treating bacterial infections, caused by bacteria like Streptococcus pneumonia, Haemophilus influenza, Chlamydia pneumonia, Streptococcus pyogenes, Staphylococcus aureus, Neisseria gonorrhoea, which cause respiratory, sinusitis, pharyngitis/tonsillitis, skin and urethritis infections (UpToDate, 2015a).

To ensure effective treatment use of azithromycin, and reduce bacterial resistance, it should only be used when there is a clear indication of a susceptible bacteria or organism (Food and Drug Administration, 2013c).

#### **5.2.2 Mechanism of action**

Azithromycin has a bacteriostatic effect. Its inhibits bacterial protein synthesis by binding to the 50S subunit of bacterial ribosomes (Rang et al., 2007).

#### **5.2.3 Absorption**

Azithromycin bioavailability is 38%. In a two-way crossover study where 12 healthy test patients were administered a single 500 mg dose of azithromycin (two 250 mg tablets) with or without a high fat meal, food consumption indicated an increase in  $C_{\text{max}}$  by 23% but had no impact on AUC. With different formulation, azithromycin suspension was given (to test patients) under fed conditions to 28 healthy subjects, Cmax increased by 56% and there was no change to AUC. Azithromycin Cmax decreased by 24% when administered with an antacid containing aluminium and magnesium hydroxide, while the AUC did not change (Food and Drug Administration, 2013c).

#### **5.2.4 Distribution**

After oral administration, distribution of azithromycin in the body may reach up to 31.1 L/kg. It binds to serum protein in a range from 51% at 0.02  $\mu$ g/mL to 7% at 2  $\mu$ g/mL. The concentration of azithromycin is higher in tissues compared to plasma or serum and penetration into the CSF is poor (UpToDate, 2015a).

#### **5.2.5 Elimination**

Azithromycin is excreted mainly through the bile as unchanged drug. Approximately 6% of the administered dose appears as unchanged drug in urine (UpToDate, 2015a).

## **5.2.6 Adverse events (AE)**

The common AE of azithromycin include GI disturbances such as diarrhoea, loose stools, abdominal complaints of pain, spasm, flatulence, nausea and vomiting. A reversible increase of some liver enzymes (transaminases, alkaline phosphate) may occur. In blood, neutropenia was noted in some cases. Hypersensitivity reactions of skin and mucosa were rare.

#### **5.2.7 Precautions**

Azithromycin should be taken with caution by hepatic disease patients because it is mainly excreted by the liver. There are limited data for patients with renal impairment and azithromycin should be taken with caution. Macrolides have been associated with prolonged QT interval and may cause cardiac arrhythmia, azithromycin treatment should be closely monitored (Lu et al., 2015). Using azithromycin without indication may increase bacterial resistance. There is not enough data about the use of azithromycin and carcinogenesis. There are no confirmed data relating to mutagenic risks and infertility by using azithromycin. There are not enough studies of the effects of using azithromycin in pregnant women. Animal studies showed that there was no direct effect on the foetus and azithromycin is classified under pregnancy category B. Azithromycin should only be administered for pregnant women if a clear requirement is determined. For lactating mothers azithromycin should be used with caution, as it has not been determined whether azithromycin is excreted in milk (Food and Drug Administration, 2013c).

## **5.2.8 Contraindications**

Azithromycin is contraindicated in those with hypersensitivity to azithromycin, other macrolide antibiotics, or any component of the formulation or who have a history of cholestatic jaundice/hepatic dysfunction associated with prior azithromycin use (UpToDate, 2015a).

## **5.3 QT-interval**

The QT interval is the time between depolarization to repolarization of the heart. The QT interval is around 400 ms. Prolongation of the QT interval increases the risk of cardiac arrhythmia which can be fatal (Food and Drug Administration, 2013b, Parnham et al., 2014). The FDA launched a safety announcement about the irregular heart rhythm associated with azithromycin treatment, especially with cardiac disease patients (Food and Drug Administration, 2013b).

## **5.4 Pharmacodynamics and pharmacokinetics**

After oral administration, azithromycin is rapidly absorbed. It distributes in skin, lung, and tonsils. Azithromycin is mainly metabolised by the liver. Additional cation should be considered when treating patients with impaired liver function (Food and Drug Administration, 2013c). The half-life of elimination after oral administration is 68-72 h allowing single dose treatment. Azithromycin is excreted mainly through biliary excretion (UpToDate, 2015a).

# **5.5 Collection of drug samples (azithromycin)**

Nineteen azithromycin products were obtained from hospitals and commercial pharmacies in different countries for inclusion in this study. Four brand samples were manufactured by Pfizer, U.S.A. (Brands A, B, C, and D). Generics (A, B, C, D, E, F, G, H, I, J, K, L, M, N, and O) were manufactured in Africa, Asia, and Europe (Table 5.1).



Table 5.1: Doses and sources of azithromycin tablets

# **5.6 Extraction by dissolution (for azithromycin)**

A dissolution method to analyse azithromycin tablets was obtained from the FDA and US Pharmacopeia. The dissolution test was carried out under the following conditions: Temp:  $37.5^{\circ}$ C  $\pm$  0.5, 900 mL 0.1 M phosphate buffer (pH 6.0) was used as a medium, the paddle apparatus (Apparatus 2): 75 rpm, sampling time at (5, 10, 20, 30, 45, and 60 min), with 5 mL volume for each sample. The samples were filtered using 20  $\mu$ m filters.

There were noticeable differences between brand A and generic A azithromycin tablets specifically in shape (Figure 5.2).



Figure 5.2: The differences in shape between brand A and generic A azithromycin.

During the dissolution test of generic products (D, E, F), they showed different dissolution behaviours compared to the branded counterpart. There was noticeable un-dissolved residue instead of a cloudy solution (Figure 5.3).



Figure 5.3: Differences in dissolution behaviour between brand A and generic E showing undissolved residue after 30 min.

Moreover, some tablets did not dissolve completely after 30 min (Figure 5.4).



Figure 5.4: Differences in dissolution behaviour, showing undissolved tablet (generic D) after 30 min.

# **5.7 LC-MS/MS experimental method validation**

## **5.7.1 Optimisation of flow rate**

Different flow rates were used to obtain the best resolution and peak shape for azithromycin and its internal standard (roxithromycin).

- a) 30  $\mu$ L/min with 0.1% FA, A: 90 5% gradient (Figure 5.5)
- b) 30 µL/min without 0.1% FA, A: 90 5% gradient (Figure 5.6)
- c) 30  $\mu$ L/min + isocratic 50% A/50% B and without 0.1 %FA (Figure 5.7)
- d) 40 µL/min with 0.1% FA, A: 90 5% gradient (Figure 5.8)



Figure 5.5: Chromatogram showing good detection of azithromycin and IS at 30  $\mu$ L/min flow rate, with 0.1% FA, A: 90 -5% gradient



Figure 5.6: Chromatogram showing no detection of azithromycin and IS at 30  $\mu$ L/min flow rate, with  $0\%$  FA, A: 90 -5% gradient



Figure 5.7: Chromatogram showing IS detection and no azithromycin detection at 30  $\mu$ L/min flow rate, with 0 % FA, isocratic 50% solution A/50% solution B



Figure 5.8: Chromatogram showing detection of azithromycin and IS with peak tailing at 40 µL/min flow rate, with 0.1% FA, A: 90 - 5% gradient

The best resolution was found at 30  $\mu$ L/min in the presence of 0.1% FA. In absence of FA, azithromycin was not detectable indicating that FA is essential for azithromycin ionisation.

#### **5.7.2 Preparation of stock, calibration solutions and control samples**

Azithromycin and roxithromycin stock solution (10 mg/mL) was prepared in acetonitrile and stored at 4ºC. The azithromycin calibration standards were freshly prepared at the time of the experiment. Five concentrations of azithromycin (0.01, 0.03 0.1, 0.3, and 1 µg/mL) were prepared in dissolution buffer containing 1  $\mu$ g/mL roxithromycin.

#### **5.7.3 Calibration and linearity**

Calibration standards  $(0.001-1 \mu g/mL)$  were injected into the LC-MS/MS system. The integrated peak areas of azithromycin and internal standard (roxithromycin) were recorded. Linear regression of the standards was done using Microsoft Excel 2010, by plotting the peak area ratio of azithromycin divided by roxithromycin against the azithromycin concentration of the standards. The linearity was checked by calculating  $r^2$  value using least-square linear regression analysis.

Figure 5.9 shows a typical standard curve for azithromycin. Coefficient of correlation was 0.996. The mean slope was  $0.2758 \pm 0.0044$  for azithromycin.



Figure 5.9: Standard curve for azithromycin standards in extraction buffer showing linear calibration line  $r^2 = 1$  using the UHPLC-MS/MS system

# **5.7.4 Method sensitivity**

The lower limit of detection (LLOD) of azithromycin is the lowest concentration with a peak area ratio three times higher than the baseline noise. The lower limit of quantification (LLOQ) was determined as the lowest concentration of azithromycin with a peak area ratio five times higher than the baseline noise with imprecision <10% and inaccuracy <15% (Table 5.2).



Table 5.2: Sensitivity test of azithromycin standard showing the concentration of LLOD and LLOQ on different days

The LLOD was found to be 0.001 µg/mL with a CV% of 24% and inaccuracy of 37%. As these values were not acceptable, this calibration level was removed from the standard curve. The LLOQ was found to be 0.01 µg/mL with a CV% of 6.2% and inaccuracy of 10.6%.

## **5.7.5 Method specificity**

The method specificity was investigated by injecting blank extraction buffer before the start of each run. The blank standards were used to control for any interfering peaks that elute at the same retention time as azithromycin and roxithromycin method was specific. There were no significant interfering peaks before, between and after each run (Figure 5.10).





# **5.7.1 Imprecision**

## **5.7.1.1 Inter-day variability**

Quality control samples (QC) of 0.05 and 0.5 µg/mL were prepared by dilution of azithromycin stock in extraction buffer solution.

Imprecision was determined by calculating the coefficient of variation (CV %) of the quality control (QC) samples using the following equation.

#### 100 average of the QC concentration  $CV\% = \frac{\text{standard deviation of QC concentration}}{2 \times 2 \times 2 \times 1} \times$

Equation 4: Calculation of coefficient of variation to check inter-day variability of azithromycin

Azithromycin known concentration 0.05  $\mu$ g/mL (low quality control; LQC) and 0.5  $\mu$ g/mL (high quality control; HQC) were injected into the LC-MS/MS system. Table 5.3 shows the hypothetical and measured concentration by LC-MS/MS analysis for these samples over five different days along with the average, standard deviation, and the coefficient of variation percentage in order to determine the interday imprecision.

Table 5.3: The average, standard deviation  $(\pm SD)$  and the coefficient of variation (CV) for the inter-day variability for azithromycin assay standards at 0.05 and 0.5 µg/mL



Interday imprecision for both LQC and HQC were acceptable  $(< 8\%)$  indicating good reproducibility between days.

## **5.7.1.2 Intraday variability**

Azithromycin LQC and HQC were injected into the LC-MS/MS system. Table 5.4 shows the hypothetical and measured concentration by LC-MS/MS analysis for five different samples within the same day along with the average, standard deviation, and the coefficient of variation percentage in order to determine the intraday imprecision.



Table 5.4: The average, standard deviation  $(\pm SD)$  and the coefficient of variation  $(CV)$ for the intraday variability for azithromycin assay standards at  $0.05$  and  $0.5 \mu$ g/mL

Intraday imprecision was determined by extraction and analysis of 5 replicates of each of the two QC samples within the same run.

Intraday imprecision for both LQC and HQC was acceptable  $(< 8\%)$  indicating good reproducibility within day.

## **5.7.2 Inaccuracy**

The inaccuracy of the assay was determined by measuring the difference between actual (hypothetical) and measured concentration of each azithromycin calibration standard. The concentration difference was then divided by the actual concentration and multiplied by 100 (Equation 5).

 $\text{Inaccuracy} = \frac{\text{Actual conc. - measured conc.}}{1.1} \times 100$ Actual conc.

Equation 5: Inaccuracy percentage calculations of hypothetical and measured azithromycin concentrations

Table 5.5: Inaccuracy of the assay was < 13% of the true value at standard curve concentrations ranging from 0.01 to 1 µg/mL of azithromycin



The inaccuracy values were acceptable  $(\leq 15\%)$  for all of the five azithromycin standards (Table 5.5).

## **5.7.3 LC-MS/MS system carryover**

The LC-MS/MS system carryover was checked by running blank samples between actual samples. The blank sample was checked for the presence of any carried over azithromycin and roxithromycin. Calibration standards were also randomised and the calibration curve linearity was then checked in order to detect any carryover (Figure 5.11).





# **5.7.4 Statistical analysis and graphic presentation**

The graphic presentations and the statistical analyses were done using Excel 2010 for Windows version, 14.0.6112.500 (32-bit) and Minitab version, 16.

#### **5.7.5 Dissolution extraction recovery**

The recovery of the volume was calculated by dividing the actual volume over the total volume then multiplied by the concentration (Table 5.6).

Conc. Total volume  $\text{Recovery} = \frac{\text{Actual volume}}{\text{Recovery}} \times$ 

Equation 6: Recovery calculation of azithromycin standards

Table 5.6: The average recovery percentage of azithromycin mass amount after 30 and 60 min and standard error of the dissolution test ( $n = 3$ )



This test was done in order to confirm that the dissolution test successfully recovered all the tablet content after 30 and 60 min.

## **5.7.6 Stability**

Freeze thaw stability was done for three azithromycin calibration standards stored at -20<sup>o</sup>C, thawed and re-frozen every week for three weeks.

This test was done to check azithromycin standards stability in stock solutions. Azithromycin standards were stable for the whole period of the experiment. Two different concentrations of 0.03 and 0.3 µg/mL from week 1, 2, and 3 were measured (Table 5.7).

The azithromycin standards were stable for freeze thaw cycles. Average measured concentration for 3 cycles of 0.03 and 0.3 µg/mL of azithromycin was 0.033 and 0.32, respectively. The CV% of 0.03 and 0.3 µg/mL of azithromycin standards were less than 6%. Inaccuracy of the measured concentration was less than  $\pm 12\%$ .

Table 5.7: The average concentration  $(\pm SD)$  and coefficient of variation (CV) and inaccuracy of azithromycin stability in stock solution for week 1, 2, and 3



## **5.7.7 Final results**

The method was successfully applied to measure the actual concentration in each azithromycin product using LC-MS/MS analysis. Sampling time was done at six different intervals in order to check for azithromycin release from tablets. All branded products from Pfizer (A, B, C, D) and ten generics from different manufacturers (A, B, C, G, I, J, K, L, M, O) showed more than 80% of labelled amount in azithromycin capsules after 30 min of the dissolution test giving  $91 \pm 9.9$ ,  $94 \pm 4.8$ ,  $90 \pm 1.4$ ,  $99 \pm 6.4$ ,  $82 \pm 4.3$ ,  $87 \pm 13.8$ ,  $115 \pm 13.8$ 5.8,  $86 \pm 6.2$ ,  $107 \pm 14.6$ ,  $88 \pm 13.1$ ,  $96 \pm 1.3$ ,  $94 \pm 4.5$ ,  $106 \pm 0.97$  and  $86 \pm 5.7\%$  ( $\pm$ SD), respectively. Five generics (D, E, F, H, N), showed less than the minimum percentage of labelled amount (80% after 30 min)  $32 \pm 17.5$ ,  $71 \pm 8.4$ ,  $71 \pm 9.3$ ,  $62 \pm 10.7$  and  $45 \pm 19.1\%$ respectively, (Figure 5.12). Relative to brand (A), statistical analysis showed significant differences (p<0.0001) of the mean percentage content between brand and generic, the 95%

CI range for the brands (B, C, D) were (74-115), (84-96) (71-127), respectively, and (63- 100), (27-146), (60-113), (43-107), (35-107), (31-111), (44-170), (16-108), (32-144), (90- 101), (90-140), (74-114), (102-110), (37-127), (62-110) for the generics (A, B, C, D, E, F, G, H, I, J, K, L, M, N, O), respectively (Table 5.8).



Figure 5.12: Percentage dissolved azithromycin in brand and generics  $(n = 3)$ 



Table 5.8: The average percentage of azithromycin mass amount, standard deviation, coefficient of variation and 95% CI based on reference capsule (Brand A),  $(n = 3)$ 

# **5.8 Conclusions**

All branded products from Pfizer (A, B, C and D) met the USP requirement. Some generic products made by one manufacturer from different batch numbers met the USP requirement, generic (A, B and C). Another generic manufacturer with different batch numbers, generic (D, E and F), failed to meet the USP requirement. However, after 60 min, for two products (generic E and F) more than 80% of azithromycin dissolved. This highlights differences in dissolution behaviours between branded and generic copies,

which is a delay in the dissolution rate. For generic  $(G, H \text{ and } I)$ , an interesting observation occurred. Two out of three products (G and I) met the USP requirement and one (generic H) failed. Generic products (J, K, L, M and O) met the USP requirement and generic product (N) failed. The causes for dissolution test failure are not clear, but it could be due to bad storage conditions, lack of GMP and/or GLP, resulting in substandard products.

As shown in the dissolution test, some generic products (Generic D, E and F) had different dissolution behaviours compared to the branded counterpart. There was noticeable undissolved residue instead of a cloudy solution and some tablets did not dissolve completely (Figure 5.3 and figure 5.4). Therefore, it could be the main reason why they failed to meet the USP requirements and showed poor dissolution profiles (average content 32, 71, and 71% after 30 min).

# **Chapter 6. Bioequivalence study of two azithromycin products after oral administration in healthy adults under fasting conditions**

# **6.1 Introduction**

This study was performed to investigate the bioequivalence of azithromycin between test product Mazit capsules 250 mg (250 mg azithromycin per capsule: Neopharma, UAE), and reference product Zithromax™ (250 mg azithromycin per capsule, Pfizer Italia, S.R.L., Italy) in fasting healthy subjects.

The study was conducted in collaboration with Neopharma Pharmaceutical Company in United Arab Emirates. The study was a single dose, open label, randomised, two-way crossover design. Clinical investigation of the study was conducted in the International Pharmaceutical Research Centre (IPRC), Amman, Jordan, according to the International Conference on Harmonisation, ICH for Good Clinical Practice (GCP) guidelines, adopted by the European Medicines Agency (EMA). The study protocol called for the 24 healthy volunteers plus 1 to 4 alternates. Demographic data and all clinical assessment along with laboratory evaluation were performed for all enrolled subjects.

The subjects received two capsules of Mazit Capsules 250 mg (250 mg azithromycin per capsule) and two capsules of Zithromax<sup>™</sup> (250 mg azithromycin per capsule) in a randomised fashion with a washout period of 21 days. Twenty-eight healthy volunteers enrolled and completed the crossover. The bioanalysis of clinical plasma samples was accomplished by LC/MS/MS detection, which was developed, and validated in accordance with international guidelines at the IPRC. Pharmacokinetic parameters were determined by standard non-compartmental methods, and ANOVA statistics were calculated using Microsoft Excel 2013 and Minitab-17 Statistical Software. The 90% confidence intervals for the ratio (or difference) between the test and reference product pharmacokinetic parameters of C<sub>max</sub>, t<sub>max</sub> and AUC<sub>0-72</sub> were calculated.

# **6.2 Aims and Objectives**

The aim of this study was to investigate the bioequivalence between the test product, Mazit capsules 250 mg, Neopharma, UAE, and its reference product Zithromax™, 250 mg, Pfizer Italia, S.R.L., Italy, in fasting healthy subjects.

# **6.3 Subjects**

Test subjects were recruited from Amman, Jordan and the surrounding areas. Table 6.1, showing the demographic data and sequence of participating test subjects. For participation in the study, test subjects had to meet the selection criteria outlined in the study protocol. Volunteers were informed, by the IPRC representatives, about the aim of the study and any potential risks. Volunteers signed written informed consent (IC) statements, and they were free to withdraw at any time during the course of the study. The investigators had the right to exclude or discontinue any test subjects if they felt that for any reason it would be better to do so, such as risks to their health or signs of side effects or failure to abide by the study protocol and its requirements.

Table 6.1: Demographic data and individual values for the eligible 24 male subjects for the bioequivalence study between Mazit Capsules 250 mg (Neopharma, UAE) and Zithromax™ manufactured by (Pfizer Italia S.R.L., Italy)



**\***A: Test product, (Mazit), B: Reference product (Zithromax™).

The subjects age ranged between 20 - 37 years ( $27 \pm 4.61$  years). Weight at screening was between 60-90 kg (72  $\pm$  9.76 kg). Height was between 160 - 188 cm (174  $\pm$  7.08 cm).

Each subject received a thorough physical assessment, vital signs evaluation (blood pressure, pulse, respiratory rate and temperature) and ECG on screening examination. The subjects received the same physical assessment and vital signs evaluation and ECG plus liver function test on follow up examination, which was within at least 24 h from collecting the last sample in period 2.

## **6.3.1 Inclusion criteria**

To be eligible for participation in the study, subjects were examined according to following criteria before their enrolment in the study.

- Age  $18 45$  years, inclusive.
- Subject does not having known allergy to the drug under investigation (azithromycin) or any of its other ingredients or any related drug (erythromycin, any macrolide or ketolide antibiotic).
- Medical demographics are within the normal range performed not longer than two weeks before the initiation of the clinical study.
- Results of laboratory tests are within the normal range. (Laboratory tests are performed not longer than two weeks before the initiation of the clinical study).
- Body weight within 15% of ideal weight for height (Table of "Desirable Weights of Adults", Metropolitan Life Insurance Company Statistical Bulletin, 1983).

## **6.3.2 Exclusion criteria**

- History of drug or alcohol abuse.
- Acute infection within one week preceding first study drug administration.
- Medical demographics with deviations from reference ranges.
- Subject does not agree not to consume any beverage or food containing methylxanthines e.g. caffeine (coffee, tea, energy drinks, chocolate etc.) 24 h prior to the study drug administration of either study period until the end of confinement.
- Subject is a heavy smoker (more than 10 cigarettes per day).
- Subject does not agree not to take any prescription or non-prescription drugs within two weeks before first study drug administration and until the end of the study.
- Subject does not agree not to take any vitamins taken for nutritional purposes within two days before first study drug administration and until the end of the study.
- Results of laboratory tests, which are outside the reference ranges.
- Subject is on a special diet (for example subject is vegetarian).
- Subject consumes large quantities of alcohol or beverages containing methylxanthines e.g. coffee, tea, energy drinks, chocolate etc.).
- Subject does not agree not to consume any beverages of food containing alcohol 48 h prior to study drug administration until donating the last sample in each respective period.
- Subject does not agree not to consume any beverages or food containing grapefruit seven days prior to first study drug administration until the end of the study.
- Subject has a history of severe diseases, which have direct impact on the study.
- Participation in a bioequivalence study or any clinical study within the last two months before first study drug administration.
- Subject intends to be hospitalized within three months after the first study drug administration.
- Subjects who through completion of the study would have donated more than 500 mL of blood in 14 days or 750 mL of blood in 30 days, 1000 mL in 90 days, 1250 mL in 120 days, 1500 mL in 180 days, 2000 mL in 270 days, 2500 mL of blood in 1 year.
- The subject is a pregnant female (positive urine or blood pregnancy test) or a lactating female in case there were female participants (no applicable as only men were used in this particular study but still an applicable exclusion criteria if women were included as part of any other current or future study).
- Subject has a history or presence of significant asthma, peptic or gastric ulcer, sinusitis, pharyngitis, renal disorder, hepatic disorder, cardiovascular disorder, neurological disease, haematological disorders or diabetes, psychiatric, dermatologic or immunological disorders.
- Subject who has been engaged in strenuous exercise at least one day prior to dosing till the last sample of each respective period.
- Subject is taking one or more of the following medications, nelfinavir, warfarin, atorvastatin, carbamazepine, cetirizine, didanosine, efavirenz, fluconazole, indinavir, midazolam, rifabutin, sildenafil, theophylline (intravenous and oral), triazolam, trimethoprim/sulfamethoxazole or zidovudine, digoxin, ergotamine or dihydroergotamine, terfanadine, ciclosporin, hexobarbital and phenytoin, antacids containing aluminium and magnesium hydroxide, cimetidine.
- Subjects who have been diagnosed with liver disease, kidney disease, certain heart problems (abnormalities ECG, slow heartbeat, heart failure), family history of certain heart problems, pneumonia, colitis, fungal infection.
- Subject has a history of difficulties in swallowing or any gastrointestinal disease, which could affect the drug absorption.

Forty eight healthy subjects were recruited according to the selection criteria described in the study protocol and volunteered for participation in the study (Figure 6.1). All participating subjects were treated as a single group. Each subject was examined thoroughly during the screening procedure as described in the study protocol (the screening time been set to be not more than two weeks prior to the first study drug administration of study period 1).



Figure 6.1: Disposition of subjects

# **6.3.3 Subject identification**

During the screening process only their initials identified all test subjects. Each test subject on admission for period 1 was assigned numbers in sequential order. Test subjects throughout the duration of the study retained their represented identification numbers. For data processing and reporting, their assigned identification numbers and initials only identified test subjects.

# **6.3.4 Withdrawal and exclusions**

During this study, 48 subjects were screened. six subjects withdrew for abnormal laboratory results, 12 subjects withdrew for personal reasons and 2 subjects withdrew for medical conditions. A total of 28 subjects were enrolled and completed the crossover. Four subjects experienced vomiting during the bioequivalence study for unknown

reasons and were excluded from statistical analysis. Subject withdrawal can be divided into 3 groups (Table 6.2). For more details, see (Appendix 5).

Table 6.2: Types of subjects withdraw from the study



# **6.4 Randomisation**

The study was a randomised two-way, two sequence crossover design. The order in which the test and reference medicines were received by each test subject was determined by the randomisation plan (Table 6.3). Test subjects were assigned a number in sequential order as per the arrival sequence numbers provided on the test subjects arrival at the centre, by check in for period one and based on adherence of the determined protocol requirements.

All clinical data from this study were collated in case report forms (CRF's) by members of staff in the IPRC. The principal investigators, to ensure correct and accurate completion, evaluated all case report forms. The randomisation codes were withheld from the study personal (see Appendix 7).

Table 6.3: Randomisation plan for the bioequivalence study between Mazit capsules 250 mg, (250 mg azithromycin per capsule) and Zithromax™, (250 mg azithromycin per capsule)



A: The test product, Mazit, Neopharma, 250 mg azithromycin per capsule

B: The reference product, Zithromax™, Pfizer Italia, S.R.L., Italy., 250 mg azithromycin per capsule.

# **6.5 Study drug administration**

Study drugs were administered by the clinical staff of the IPRC as follows:

- Treatment A: Two capsules of Mazit capsules 250 mg, test product, 250 mg azithromycin per capsule were given with 240 ml of water. Water was at room temperature and was measured with a 250 ml cylinder.
- Treatment B: Two capsules of Zithromax™, reference product, 250 mg azithromycin per capsule were given with 240 ml of water. Water was at room temperature and was measured with a 250 ml cylinder (Table 6.4).

Table 6.4: Identity of the study medications involved in the bioequivalence study between Mazit capsules 250 mg (Neopharma, UAE) and Zithromax™ (Manufactured by Pfizer Italia S.R.L., Italy).



Study initiation			Period 1	Washout	Period 1	Study completion					
approval Protocol	Randomisation	Screening	identification Subject	Test Product Reference Product	Crossover	Test Product Reference Product	ęп Follow	out close part Clinical	ysis Bioanal	and sis Pharmacokinetics analy statistical	Reporting

Figure 6.2: Study design and plan

Adequate quantities of the study formulation were provided. A pre-planned scheme was followed as detailed in (Figure 6.2) and the study schematic in (Table 6.5).



Table 6.5: The pre planned scheme, which was conducted for the bioequivalence study

\* There was a washout period of at least 21 days between the two administrations of study drugs

Between 14 days and approximately one day before first study drug administration in study period 1

**◦** To be eligible for participation in the study, test subjects must meet all selection criteria before the first study drug administration in study period 1 was established.

**♣** Before screening examination, the subject has to sign the informed consent form.

**#** Follow-up was done within at least 24 h of last blood sample

\*\* liver function test

# **6.6 Adverse events during the study**

Test subjects were monitored throughout the confinement period for AE to the study formulation and/or procedures. From the start till the end of the confinement period, a study physician or a medically qualified person were on site and on call. At the beginning of the second period, test subjects were asked concerning unusual symptoms, which may have occurred during the previous administration of the study drug. The qualified medical person or study physician evaluated all drug related symptoms of clinical significance before the next dose administration. Some adverse events occurred during the study but were minimal (Table 6.6). Five out of the twenty-four test subjects experienced AE, with headache, abdominal pain and heartburn being the main adverse effects. All adverse effects occurred during study period 2 and were classified as mild.

<b>Subject</b> No.	<b>Adverse event</b>	Study period	<b>Severity</b>	<b>Onset from</b> drug administration (h)	Relationship to study drug	Treatment given	<b>Action</b> taken	<b>Outcome</b>
4	Headache	2	Mild	< 24 h	Possible	А	None	Complete recovery
7	Abdominal pain	2	Mild	< 24 h	Possible	А	None	Complete recovery
8	Heart pain	2	Mild	< 24 h	Possible	A	None	Complete recovery
9	Headache, abdominal pain	2	Mild	< 24 h	Possible	A	None	Complete recovery
14	Abdominal pain	2	Mild	$<$ 24 h	Possible	B	None	Complete recovery

Table 6.6: Adverse events that occurred during the bioequivalence study

# **6.7 Dietary restriction**

From 48 h prior to the study drug administration, no consumption of alcohol was permitted until the collection of the last sample of the respective study period. Any beverages or foods containing methyl-xanthines such as caffeine (coffee, tea, cola, cocoa, chocolate, etc.) were prohibited for the subjects, 24 h prior to the study drug administration until the end of the confinement in each study period. In addition, any foods or beverages containing grapefruit were prohibited one week before the first study drug administration up until the end of the study. Food and fluid intake were kept identical in both study periods, commencing with dinner served 10 h before study drug administration on study day one until the end of confinement. Test subjects were only allowed to consume foods provided within the period of confinement. All test subjects received meals in the following time frame intervals, as shown in (Table 6.7).

Table 6.7: Standardised meals served during the bioequivalence study

Study day	<b>Standardized diet</b>	Time received
$-1$	Dinner	Finished at least 10 h before the scheduled time of study drug
		administration in the morning of study day 1
	Lunch	4 h after study drug administration
	<b>Snack</b>	8 h after study drug administration
	Dinner	12 h after study drug administration

# **6.8 Blood sample collection and analysis**

In the morning of study day 1 of each study period and before study drug administration, a cannula was inserted into the subjects' forearm vein and remained there until the 24 hour blood sample was collected and then the subject returned to donate the rest of samples. The volume of blood taken for determination of azithromycin in plasma was 8 mL per sample. The following blood samples for the analysis of azithromycin in plasma were collected immediately before (2 x 8 mL) at 0.00 (pre-dose) and 0.33, 0.66, 1.00, 1.33, 1.66, 2.00, 2.50, 3.00, 3.50, 4.00, 4.50, 5.00, 6.00, 8.00, 10.00, 12.00, 16.00, 24.00, 48.00 and 72.00 h, (1 x 8 mL) after administration of study drugs (Appendix 5). The number of blood collections for drug analysis was 22 samples in each study period. After centrifugation, plasma samples were transferred directly into a 5 mL tube. These samples were immediately stored at the study site in a freezer at a nominal temperature of −20 °C. The label of collecting tubes had the study's code, subject number, study period and the designated sample number. They did not contain information that would allow identification of the given treatment. This assured that the analysis at IPRC analysed the samples blindly. A validation with LC/MS/MS detector for the determination of azithromycin in human plasma which was developed and validated in accordance with international guidelines at the IPRC was used (ICH Harmonised Tripartite Guideline, 1996, EURACHEM Guide, 1998, Food and Drug Administration, 2001).

# **6.9 Results**

Demographic data and all clinical assessments along with laboratory evaluation were performed for all enrolled subjects. However, for pharmacokinetic evaluations the data from 24 subjects were included in the calculation (Table 6.8 and Table 6.9). Drug plasma levels were designated as surrogate parameters to indicate clinical activity. Primary pharmacokinetic parameters were set to be  $C_{\text{max}}$  and truncated  $AUC_{0.72}$  and were also considered to be the bioequivalence determinants. Finally,  $t_{\text{max}}$ , AUC<sub>0-∞</sub> and  $t_{1/2}$  were set as the secondary pharmacokinetic parameters.

The details of azithromycin results for this bioequivalence study are shown in Tables 6.10, 6.11, 6.12, 6.13 and 6.14. Bioequivalence could be demonstrated for azithromycin within the prescribed 90% confidence interval of 80.00-125.00% for  $C_{\text{max}}$  and truncated AUC<sub>0-72</sub>.

The test product, Mazit capsules 250 mg (Neopharma, UAE; 250 mg azithromycin per capsule), investigated in this study was shown to be bioequivalent with the reference product Zithromax™ (Pfizer Italia S.R.L., Italy, 250 mg azithromycin per capsule) following an oral dosage of 500 mg (two capsules). Plasma levels may be used as surrogate parameters for clinical activity. Therefore, the data obtained in this study prove, by appropriate statistical methods, the essential similarity of plasma levels of azithromycin from the test product Zithromax™ (Pfizer Italia, S.R.L., Italy) suggesting equal clinical efficacy of these two products.
Table 6.8: Individual plasma concentration of azithromycin versus time after single dose administration of 500 mg azithromycin Treatment A test product: Mazit capsules 250 mg, 250 mg azithromycin per capsule



#### Table 6.8 Continued…



Table 6.9: Individual plasma concentration of azithromycin versus time after single dose administration of 500 mg azithromycin Treatment B reference product: Zithromax™, 250 mg of azithromycin per capsule



Table 6.9 continued…



Table 6.10: Individual pharmacokinetics of azithromycin after single dose administration of 500 mg azithromycin Treatment A test product: Mazit capsules 250 mg, 250 mg of azithromycin per capsule



---No clear elimination

Table 6.11: Individual pharmacokinetics of azithromycin after single dose administration of 500 mg azithromycin treatment B reference product: Zithromax™, 250 mg of azithromycin per capsule



Table 6.12: Ratio analysis of untransformed C<sub>max</sub> data of azithromycin after an oral dose administration of 500 mg azithromycin of Treatment A test product Mazit capsules, 250 mg of azithromycin per capsule and Treatment B reference product Zithromax™, 250 mg of azithromycin per capsule



Table 6.13: Ratio analysis of untransformed AUC<sub>0-72</sub> data of azithromycin after an oral dose administration of 500 mg azithromycin of Treatment A test product Mazit capsules, 250 mg of azithromycin per capsule and Treatment B reference product Zithromax™, 250 mg of azithromycin per capsule



Table 6.14: Ratio analysis of untransformed AUC0-<sup>∞</sup> data of azithromycin after an oral dose administration of 500 mg azithromycin of Treatment A test product Mazit capsules, 250 mg of azithromycin per capsule and Treatment B reference product Zithromax™, 250 mg of azithromycin per capsule



---No clear elimination

#### **6.9.1 The concentration of Mazit versus Zithromax for all subjects**

The concentration and logarithmic concentration of the test product, Mazit capsules (Neopharma, UAE; 250 mg azithromycin per capsule), and the reference product Zithromax™ (Pfizer Italia S.R.L., Italy, 250 mg azithromycin per capsule) after an oral dosage of 500 mg (two capsules) in subject 1 is shown in the figures below.



Figure 6.3: Concentration of Mazit compared to Zithromax™ (Subject 1)





Figures for subjects 2-24 are in appendix 6

#### **6.10 Conclusions**

This study was a single centre, open label, randomised, single dose study with two-way crossover design to compare the bioavailability of azithromycin between two products, in healthy, adult volunteers under fasting conditions. The results of this bioequivalence study showed the equivalence of the two studied products in terms of the rate of absorption as indicated by  $C_{\text{max}}$  and in terms of the extent of absorption as indicated by  $AUC_{0.72}$  and AUC0-∞. The parametric 90% confidence intervals of the mean values for the test/reference ratio were in each case well within the bioequivalence acceptable boundaries of 80-125% for  $C_{\text{max}}$  and truncated AUC<sub>0-72</sub> (Appendix 8).

Since plasma levels are a meaningful surrogate for pharmacodynamic action and adverse events, this demonstrates that an equivalent therapeutic activity and tolerance is to be expected from Mazit capsules 250 mg (Neopharma, UAE) test product as compared to Zithromax™ (Pfizer Italia, S.R.L., Italy), the reference product.

# **Chapter 7. General discussion and conclusion**

Based on current growth trends, by the time this thesis is finished (2015), it is estimated that the counterfeit market will be worth over \$150 billion a year. In 2000, there was a WHO report on Africa and Asia, confirming that between 38% and 53% of antimalarial drugs were counterfeit, with no active ingredients in the drug product. An estimated 700,000 deaths yearly are from substandard antimalarial and anti-TB medications (Mackey and Liang, 2011). During 2003 the estimated yearly profits made from substandard and counterfeits were more than \$32 billion (World Health Organization, 2003). As mentioned in chapter 1, as of 2010, this estimate has more than doubled. This is evidence of the everincreasing challenges faced by regulatory bodies and why it is such a lucrative industry. Counterfeiters find vulnerabilities in the system, as the incentives to abuse the healthcare industry, as mentioned previously, are very high. Authorities and regulators are moving far too slowly in terms of reacting to vulnerabilities in the current system.

One of the points of entry for counterfeit or substandard medicines is the high percentage of active ingredient's now imported into the United States, from regions where regulations and quality control are not as rigorous (Blackstone et al., 2014). Due to some vulnerabilities in the manufacturing and supply chains, counterfeit and substandard manufacturers can make their way through the European supply chains via countries such as China, India, Pakistan, Spain and Russia, that have low regulation and quality controls, as most European countries import their medications from these regions (Bate, 2008). Further regulation and monitoring processes should be applied to poorly regulated areas. It is extremely difficult to prevent counterfeit drugs entering a country such as United States as nearly 40% of drugs are manufactured overseas and approximately 80% of the active ingredients used for all pharmaceuticals are imported into the United States (Blackstone et al., 2014).

In this thesis, approaches to the investigation of counterfeit drugs have been studied and a number of example drugs fully investigated using the described techniques. The *in-vitro* dissolution testing was found to be able to identify differences in dissolution performance between branded and generic products. Dissolution testing was carried out according to the United States Pharmacopeia (USP) guidelines. According to the USP, not less than 80% of the labelled amount of ciclosporin and azithromycin should dissolve in 90 and 30 min, respectively. The samples were analysed using liquid chromatography.

Dissolution testing was useful in determining the difference in dissolution timings of different tablets and capsules. In addition, it was useful as a preparatory technique in order to prepare samples for further analysis (e.g.: drug analysis using LC or CE). Therefore, the dissolution tester should be available in every drug analysis laboratory.

In this study, the LC systems with simple UV detection were used to determine the drug content of capsules and tablets. In addition, the LC system was also found to be useful in determining the presence of impurities in ciclosporin capsules. However, to determine the nature and the relative quantities of these impurities required more selective detection, so a LC-MS is necessary. Thus, it is recommended to use a combination of LC-UV and LC-MS for identifying content and impurities, respectively.

In contrast, the LC-MS system used for identifying impurities was unable to provide absolute quantities of the impurities. In order to derive absolute quantities using LC-MS, a set of external calibrator and labelled internal standards are required. For most of the impurities, there were no available external calibrator/internal standards. Therefore, it was difficult to perform absolute quantification. However, further studies are required to perform such quantitation.

# **7.1 Dissolution testing**

Dissolution testing can be used to test the overall drug formulation if there is suspicion of it being counterfeit or substandard. A dissolution method is suitable for testing drugs to monitor the effective release of the active ingredients. The guidelines for dissolution testing can be obtained from sources such as the USP and FDA. Dissolution test could be used during the formulation design stage of the drug. It is an important measurement for quality control of a drug. This gives an indication of the timing of which the drug is released (*invivo*) after consumption and could highlight any potential differences and bioavailability. The medium used in ciclosporin dissolution test was only water, while in azithromycin dissolution test it was aqueous with 0.1 M phosphate buffer (pH 6.0), which met the USP

and FDA guidelines for dissolution testing. It is safe to consider that the choice of water as an appropriate bio-relevant dissolution medium as its used for quality control testing (Qureshi, 2010). Although, further review for the dissolution testing guidelines should be considered to make the dissolution testing closer to the GI environment, especially important for ionisable drugs. A study of an *in-vitro* dissolution test on amoxicillin concluded that 62.5% of the tested generics were not substitutable for the brand Amoxil™ (Kassaye and Genete, 2013).

## **7.2 Ciclosporin study**

Since ciclosporin is an important immunosuppressant agent, it requires careful therapeutic dosing. In recent years, many studies have questioned the use of generic substitutes, especially when considering those that are NTIDs.

In this test the aim was to develop, validate and apply a dissolution test for ciclosporin in capsules using a HPLC method and then to compare brand medications to the generic or copy products. Moreover, the detection of contaminates and the source of impurities in these products are essential to understand.

A sensitive and specific HPLC-UV method was developed to detect and subsequently quantitate the ciclosporin active base in capsules. Dissolution testing of the capsules was done as specified in the USP. Analytes were isocratically eluted at 0.7 mL/min with acetonitrile and water (70:30% v/v) and 0.03% v/v trifluroacetic acid over the 25 min runtime. Although the USP recommends that the column should be heated to 80°C, there is a difference in the temperature researchers choose that fits with their respective system. When this method was applied, it did not achieve the required separation, but at 50<sup>o</sup>C the necessary sensitivity and separation was achieved. The HPLC method developed in this study is significantly different to that stated in the USP.

Treating patients orally, using capsules or tablets is still one of the most used routes of administration. After oral administration of capsules, the capsule shell should rupture within a specific time to allow the release of the drug in the gastrointestinal tract before going to the systemic circulation. The rate of dissolution of the capsule is therefore

essential. Dissolution profiles revealed that all the ciclosporin capsules used in these investigations complied with USP, rupturing within 15 min (The United States Pharmacopeia, 2008). There are discrepancies in the dissolution methods between the FDA and the USP. The FDA suggest to use a litre of 0.1 N HCl containing 4 mg of N,Ndimethydodecylamine-N-oxide per mL at 75 rpm. The USP in 2012 recommend the use of 500 mL water at 50 rpm (Food and Drug Administration, 2008a, USP 35, 2012).

According to the USP, the guideline for dissolution sampling is at 90 min for ciclosporin which requires a minimum of 80% of the active ingredient. As part of the study reported here, additional sampling times up to 2 h were required to monitor the dissolution behaviours.

The standard curve, when fitted using least square linear regression, was linear. The LC successfully separate the compound of interest. Detection of ciclosporin at low and high concentration was reproducible and the method was sensitive. The method was specific, as the blank runs did not produce any interfering peaks coinciding with retention time of ciclosporin. The within day and between day variability of the standards was within an acceptable range. The method was accurate. There was no system carry over for ciclosporin. Blank samples were run between the actual samples without detection of any carry-over of ciclosporin.

The application of the assay was successful. The Turkish brand was the best brand in terms of content of the active ingredient with  $100 \pm 0.05\%$  and  $100 \pm 0.03\%$  for both test conditions. Generics from India and Morocco had only  $69 \pm 0.08\%$  and  $54 \pm 0.10\%$ , respectively. There were one or more impurities in all capsules.

It was confirmed in this thesis, that there is a difference in dissolution behaviours between generic ciclosporin and its branded counterpart. In Tables 4.3 and 4.11, ciclosporin test A and B, there was a noticeable early release of ciclosporin after 5 min sampling time of generic C and generic Col. The average percentage content of ciclosporin found, was 85% and 81%, respectively. During this sampling time, none of the other tested brands and generics had that much release of ciclosporin. The reason for the rapid ciclosporin release for the above mentioned generic could be due to the thin transparent capsule shell. These

ciclosporin capsules met the USP requirements, rupturing within 15 min but there is no clear information about the effects of early release of ciclosporin. It was found in test A, that generic I average content was less than the required USP amount (69.3% after 90 min). Moreover, in test B, the average content of ciclosporin M, was found to be 54% only after 90 min. This indicates that these two products could be substandard and/or counterfeit. The contents of one of the ciclosporin capsules we reported in this study is in agreement with those found by other researchers (Bonifacio et al., 2009), where they detected only 68% of the labelled concentration in one of the generic capsules. Using such products with lower therapeutic doses in transplant patients could lead to acute rejection (Browne et al., 2001). Even within brands of ciclosporin from different countries, there were differences in the average content after 90 min within the acceptable limit. In Table 4.11, at 90 min sampling times, the average content of ciclosporin for TK, Sa, Jor, Egy and Pak was 100, 99, 84, 92, and 94%, respectively. This indicates that even within the same brand, there are differences in the average content of ciclosporin. Some small differences in NTIDs such as ciclosporin, could lead to harmful side effects. Based on these results, switching between generic and branded ciclosporin is not recommended. The tests provided some surprising results. Some of the test products had less than 80% requirement and even some of the branded drugs which are supposed to have set the benchmark did not have 100% either. This highlights potential poor standards in the manufacturing process which need to be reviewed.

While using the HPLC method to quantify ciclosporin labelled amount, some impurities were detected using the UV detector (Figure 4.2). The impurities in ciclosporin capsules were then investigated using a UHPLC-MS in order to identify the nature of these impurities. Samples were then analysed for the whole chemical content using a Q-TOF LC-MS system and compared to each other using univariate (fold change and p values) and multivariate (PCA and heatmaps) statistical methods. All generic capsules were found to have a different chemical content when compared to the brand product. On identifying the nature of impurities in one of the generic compounds (Col), sorbitol was found to be higher by 260 fold change. Sorbitol is widely used in the pharmaceutical industry as an inactive ingredient, its function being to sweeten medicines such as syrups and chewable tablets. It is synthesised by hydrogenation of glucose and is formulated into a liquid or

crystalline preparation. Sorbitol is less sweet than glucose and contains less calories. In ciclosporin capsules, sorbitol is used as a plasticizer (Rowe et al., 2009).

A known side effect of sorbitol is its laxative effect but as it is administered in small quantities in pharmaceuticals, this is not a common occurrence.

Other side effects may include anal irritation, diarrhoea, gas, stomach cramps, and nausea. It also has potential serious side effects which require medical intervention such as allergic reactions concerning rash, itching, difficulty breathing, swelling of the mouth, face, lips or tongue and rectal bleeding (UpToDate, 2015b).

According to the FDA, the maximum amount of sorbitol in soft gelatine liquid filled capsules (such as ciclosporin) should be 97 mg (Food and Drug Administration, 2015c). However, there is no listed label quantity of sorbitol as an inactive ingredient in ciclosporin capsule products. Even though the amount of sorbitol as an inactive ingredient is not listed in the ciclosporin product, a high amount of sorbitol can cause some serious side effects (Rowe et al., 2009).

Other contaminants such as the ciclosporin degradation product delcorine and the plant contaminant zizyphine A, were also found in the generic product. Their safety and immunosuppressive activity are unknown and need further investigation.

The results in this study were surprising in that the content was much less than 80% in some of the capsules and was not 100 % in all the brand capsules either. This raises concerns over the manufacturing standards and the quality control measures employed even within the same brand manufactured in different countries. In the literature, the Danish medicine agencies suggested that generic substitution should no longer be used for ciclosporin following a reassessment (Heisterberg, 2011). Taking together, this data highlights the need for more quality control test of generic products and post marketing pharmacovigilance.

## **7.3 Azithromycin study**

Azithromycin is a widely used antibiotic. In India alone, there are 40 manufacturers producing 54 generic versions (Medindia, 2015). It was selected for this study due to an FDA warning about the potential fatality risk. According to Kelesidis and Falagas, as of 2009, 11% of counterfeit antimicrobial medications worldwide, were macrolides (Kelesidis and Falagas, 2015). The purpose of this study was to quantify the percentage labelled amount of azithromycin in brand versus generic copies, after *in-vitro* dissolution testing. According to the USP not less than 80% of the labelled amount of azithromycin should dissolve in 30 min.

In this study, azithromycin tablets from different generic preparations were subjected to dissolution testing at six sampling times in order to get results that are more adequate. In the USP monograph about azithromycin tablets, it mentions that the sampling times for dissolution should be done at 30 min, while the FDA provide more sampling times at 10, 20, 30 and 45 min. Five of the generic products studied failed to meet the USP requirements at azithromycin dissolution time of 30 min. On the other hand, after 60 min, only three generic products were below the acceptable limit. The results showed that, some generic tablets were not fully dissolved after 30 min and needed more time to fully dissolve. This indicates a formulation or manufacturing liability with azithromycin tablets.

In this study, a UHPLC-MS/MS method was modified to quantify azithromycin labelled amount in the generic and brand counterpart tablets (Rossmann et al., 2014). Roxithromycin was selected as an IS because it has a comparable structure, retention time and ionisation to azithromycin (Xu et al., 2008), and the method was validated. In this study, the UHPLC-MS/MS azithromycin method was found to be highly sensitive and accurate with acceptable precision. In order to get good peak resolution, previous studies suggested using either ion-pairing reagents or derivatization of azithromycin (Sharma and Mullangi, 2013). The use of ion-pairing agents is associated with unwanted effects such as ion suppression, high background noise and shortening of the LC column life. The use of derivatization agents is also undesirable as they can be toxic. In this study, azithromycin and its internal standard roxithromycin were adequately separated and achieved excellent peak resolution with minimal peak tailing using LC-MS/MS and without using any ionpairing agents or derivatization method. Furthermore, the run time was short allowing a high sample throughput.

After validation, the method was applied for the measurement of the actual concentration in each azithromycin products. Five generics (D, E, F, H, N) had less than the minimum percentage of labelled amount, indicating a presence of substandard and/or counterfeit medications for consumers. In this study, only three tablets from each product were available for analysis. Results from this study showed that the CV of the analysis of these three tablets was less than 15% for ten products, indicating good reproducibility between analysed tablets for these products. However, another eight products showed CV higher than 15% indicating bad reproducibility and high variability between tablets. Two products showed a CV higher than 50% indicating a serious problem in these tablets. These results would raise concerns about using low quality antibiotics.

With an increase in the estimated sales of counterfeit medicines, quality control tests of antibiotics are essential to ensure effective treatment (Le Doare et al., 2015). Using poor quality antibiotics could result in an increase of bacterial resistance, failure of the treatment and/or toxicity (Kelesidis et al., 2007, Johnston and Holt, 2014, Kelesidis and Falagas, 2015).

## **7.4 Bioequivalence testing: brand vs generic**

Over the last 30 years, bioequivalence testing has become an even more integral process in the pharmaceutical industry. The FDA has implemented many rules and regulations when it comes to bioequivalence testing, from the 1970s until today (Buehler, 2010). Bioequivalence testing is necessary in approving generic drugs. They are an essential benchmark that drugs need to pass in order to confirm they offer the same properties as the branded counterpart. For a generic drug to be approved, the bioavailability should be between 80-125% compared to the branded product (European Medicine Agency, 2001).

In this thesis, a single dose bioequivalence study between Mazit 250 mg and Zithromax™ 250 mg showed that they were bioequivalent within the acceptable limits 80-125% with no significant safety profile observed. Some bioequivalence studies were done on azithromycin and the same conclusion was reached, that the generic was bioequivalent to the branded counterpart (Ren et al., 2007).

In theory, generic drugs can be substituted with their branded counterpart. The fact that the cost of branded medications is higher than generics, encourages insurance companies, pharmacies, doctors and health care organisations to favour generics as an alternative (Silverman, 2015). A Medline search by Meridith, of the data published between 1973- 2003 suggested that generic drug substitution should be approached with caution. Bioequivalence tests are done as a single dose study, while multiple doses may be required to reach steady state (Meredith, 2003). Another Medline search from 1966-2006 by Al-Jazairi et al., in 2008, suggested that generic drug substitution is acceptable as long as generics have met the bioavailability limits. However, extra caution and monitoring should be considered with regards to NTIDs (e.g. ciclosporin, warfarin, carbamezapine, thyroxine) and highly variable drugs (e.g. verapamil), where interchangeability is not recommended (Al-Jazairi et al., 2008). A PubMed search from 1974-2010, by Desmarais et al., concluded that the use of generic substitution may lead to some side effects and/or toxicity resulting in more complications and may eliminate cost savings (Desmarais et al., 2011). A systematic review was carried out by Goth et al., in 2015 using Medline, Embase and the Cochrane Database, on generic substitution based on the effectiveness and cost efficiencies compared to its branded counterpart. It suggested that more research is required for generic interchangeability, especially for antiepileptic and immunosuppressive drugs (Gothe et al., 2015). There should be more communication and education about using generic substitutions (Heikkila et al., 2007, Keenum et al., 2012).

However, there is a lot of debate regarding what acceptance limits are required for generic drugs and this is even more important for NTIDs as the slightest variation could have serious effects. Bioequivalence tests for some generic drugs have confirmed that there are bioequivalence variations between a generic and its branded counterpart (Del Tacca et al., 2009). Other opinions in the pharmaceutical industry say that the current generic drug approval system is sufficient to conform to a branded drugs therapeutic equivalence (Motola and De Ponti, 2006).

The use of NTIDs requires a more detailed patient monitoring process, as small differences in bioavailability can have serious effects. The EMA set out new guidelines concerning NTIDs specifically highlighting the acceptance limit of AUC to a tighter range of between 90-111.11% but there is currently no available list confirming all the NTIDs that require this new guideline (European Medicine Agency, 2010). The MHRA announced that ciclosporin is classified as an NTID and warns that patients should be administered the same brand of ciclosporin and if this is not possible to undergo close monitoring (Medicines and Healthcare products Regulatory Agency, 2009). The fact that health regulation authorities have tightened the acceptance range for NTIDs, confirms that the current bioequivalence limit is too wide. This could indicate that, interchanging between brand and generics may lead to unwanted effects.

On the other hand, many systematic reviews and studies suggest that there are no significant differences when switching from brand to generic (Kesselheim et al., 2008, Moore et al., 2009).

The results in this thesis confirm that there are some differences between ciclosporin and azithromycin products, brand versus generic and brand versus brand. This highlights the importance of not using ciclosporin as an interchangeable drug.

## **7.5 Future control of generic and counterfeit drugs**

It is advisable that the health care authorities review the guidelines for approving generic medications on all levels. Post marketing pharmacovigilance is essential to ensure good quality medications are available for patients. Cost savings from using generics may not be real if serious side effects and/or toxicity occur. In a nutshell, it is not about brand or generic but quality and safety.

Several recent conferences have addressed the noticeable increase of concern within the health regulators and pharmaceutical industry about fake medicines.

One suggested solution to decrease the spread of counterfeit and substandard medicines is to review pricing. Price factors are one, if not the main reason for consumers to search for cheaper alternatives. This may incentivise consumers to search for and purchase drugs from

online pharmacies, which as mentioned earlier in this thesis, have a much higher chance of being counterfeit or substandard. One solution could be to look at the manufacturing costs that are imposed on pharmaceuticals such as registration costs (Medicines and Healthcare products Regulatory Agency, 2014). If costs associated by regulators are reviewed and reduced, this could result in a reduction in consumers looking for alternatives and lowering chances of potential adverse effects. In addition, many consumers are unaware of the risks from purchasing drugs online from Internet based pharmacies. Further information and warnings are needed to inform consumers of the possible dangers and how to proactively check the authenticity of vendors and of the drugs purchased.

As mentioned in the thesis, there are many stages where counterfeits or substandard production methods can enter or occur. This could be reduced by refining the stages from manufacturing to distribution and by implementing a regular track and trace system where you can follow the whole process of a drug, from manufacturing, to distribution and dispensing can be followed. Manufacturers may not want to disclose who their suppliers are or their business practices, but transparency in the pharmaceutical industry should be essential to lower the risk to public health, reduce funding terrorism, better economic prosperity and reduce the vulnerabilities of counterfeit and substandard drugs entering the supply chain. Pharmaceutical counterfeiting could be the most important criminal activity worldwide, as this funds global terrorism and is a great risk to public safety.

Another solution proposed by the American House Energy & Commerce Sub-committee on Oversight and Investigations hearing on counterfeit drugs was to increase state licensure supervision of drug wholesalers. In today's age of technology, there are options that can be put in place to help fight the issue of counterfeit drugs entering the supply chain. One technology being considered is Radio Frequency Identification (RFID) (Food and Drug Administration, 2005). RFID is a chip that stores a serial number and can confirm the products identity. It can store much more information than a traditional barcode and can add a level of automation and inventory checks that traditional barcodes cannot. RFID has already made its way into adding an additional layer of security in passports. This highlights their reputation as a reliable form of tracking and data storage. An RFID consists of three main components, 1) the transponder, which is the actual radio frequency tag. This

is the piece that holds all the information, 2) the antenna, which is the coil that allows information to be read off the RFID tag and 3) the receiver, which is the scanner that decodes the information stored on the RFID tag. RFID tags are available in many sizes. Small RFID tags can be successfully added to individual drug packaging behind labels, which are scanned individually in close range and larger RFID tags to monitor and track large quantities of drugs in batches, as they move within a factory or logistically. In addition, security alerts can be implemented to logistics to monitor where shipments are and automatically notify vulnerabilities like shipments not being recorded as reaching their destination or not arriving at the desired destination within their expected time frame, highlighting possible delays due to counterfeit manipulation or tampering. Another advantage of RFID technology is that it is continuously being improved and innovated, thus allowing the ability to expand and update without the need to invest in a whole new infrastructure from the ground up. Large pharmaceutical companies have already started to implement this technology, AstraZeneca being one of the first. We can agree that the costs to implement and improve security and regulations are high but it has to be focused as a long-term goal. The benefits in reducing counterfeiting and substandard drugs will be felt across many sections and will thus free up revenues that would be otherwise used to react to the many repercussions. A global effort in implementation should be considered as cross border regulations would help reduce counterfeit drugs on a mass scale.

In this thesis, some of the main vulnerabilities in the current pharmaceutical industries and ways in which we can approach to tackle the issues were discussed. The key ones being that the biggest flaws are in the legitimate supply chains. Upon further review, some ideas on cutting down on the levels of the supply chain and the advantages of introducing technologies in the manufacturing and distribution levels using RFID. This is even more important as drugs that are highly recognized and are in high demand in the marketplace receive less scrutiny. Technologies in large and small scale logistics could aid in faster and autonomous verification. "Good counterfeiters" invest a lot of time and effort into packaging in order to go undetected or arouse less suspicion. As labelling is the first area approached by counterfeiters it is even more important that small scale technologies are innovated and implemented into packaging.

These are some examples of the types of drugs that are being falsely labelled, Avastin (for cancer treatment) in the United States in 2012, made its way onto the market and affected 19 medical practices. Investigation confirmed that the drugs contained no active ingredient. Truvada and Viread (for HIV/AIDS) was seized in the United Kingdom in 2011, again false labelling was used and in Kenya in 2011, just under 3,000 patients were affected by counterfeit Zidolam-N (for HIV/AIDS). This again highlights the even more importance of implementing technologies that can reduce fake labelling and increase the potential to verify drugs more easily.

Further steps and checks should be made to ensure that packaging that is being disposed of, is destroyed in a manner, which will make it difficult to reuse. Another aspect of the challenge in the first stage is making the entry for counterfeiters even more difficult. As some manufacturing plants close, the equipment can be resold at a much lower cost, thus providing an opportunity for a much lower capital investment to start a counterfeit operation. One method to tackle this could be to require a form of registration for all manufacturing equipment that can be used for pharmaceutical manufacturing, similar to car registration. We can agree that even in the auto industry it has its vulnerabilities but a record keeping system in itself could be a deterrent or aid in future investigations.

As discussed in this thesis, the Internet has become a big opportunity for fake pharmacies to sell counterfeit and substandard drugs. Consumers do not know how to verify if the vendors are authentic or if they are reputable. The drugs being delivered could be shipped from countries that have a high probability of counterfeit or substandard drug track record and low regulation from authorities. Consumers are looking for alternatives to their current suppliers, as cost reduction is one of the biggest incentives. They do not care who supplies them the drugs as long as they believe them to be authentic and at a cheaper price. Criminals are always looking for the most profitable opportunities. Counterfeiters focused more on supplying individuals with lifestyle drugs but some are now shifting their focus to supplying pharmaceutical wholesalers, prioritizing those that supply aid organizations and hospitals. These are the ones that focus heavily on cost reduction. For counterfeiters to exploit this is very easy. The lack or no regulation in fake online pharmacies makes it extremely difficult for authorities to crack down on these global operations. With the

growing popularity of unregulated virtual currencies such as Bitcoin and consumers accepting the use of virtual currencies by using intermediary merchants to convert and pay for items online, it is becoming more difficult for authorities to track monetary transactions online.

Free trade has opened up international markets for developing countries to export key pharmaceuticals. Unfortunately as discussed, due to low regulations and standards, this has opened up the risk of counterfeit and substandard production. Local authorities in developing countries could choose local economic developments over a global initiative to fight drug counterfeiting. Another challenge to tackle is on the border entry points, if customs cannot authenticate in the field they must allow drugs to continue on their destined route. Improvement in detection and testing at key import zones could increase the quantity of counterfeit and substandard drugs being seized. The next stage of detection needs to be held at the distribution level, where those who wish to trade pharmaceuticals to smaller regional distributors need to accept some form of responsibility and accountability for drugs that are being handled. The last phase of verification and detection must be at the dispensing stage. We can agree that system updates across many levels will come at a cost, especially in a time where healthcare systems are under a lot of financial pressure, but the future savings and risk reduction is worth the investment and future savings.

Additional methods for detecting counterfeit and substandard medicines could be by using Physical Chemical Identifiers (PCiDs). According to the FDA, PCiD is a substance or combination of substances possessing a unique physical or chemical property that unequivocally identifies and authenticates a drug product or dosage form (Food and Drug Administration, 2011a). As machinery is more expensive and there are difficulties in certain techniques, such as colour matching when layering, this could deter counterfeiters to even attempt. As new methods and techniques in the manufacturing process are implemented, a new level of intricacy such as compression techniques for embossing and layering, to printing logos and bar codes, make it more difficult for counterfeiters. This in itself adds a critical element for the end consumer, increasing the chances of detection before consumption. Another identifiable PCiD technique is the use of pearlescent colours in the film coating process that make it very hard to replicate the colours. These

predominantly rely on the consumer being aware of their drug/s, especially with taste as some drugs are coated with flavours to mask the taste of the core tablet. However adding an element of taste and appearance does have its drawbacks such as higher costs. With the added machinery and manufacturing processes, these costs will undoubtedly be passed onto the consumer, but these extra costs could be subsidised by regulators or governments.

There are the additional factors in film coating techniques, such as Micro Taggants, that are microscopic particles, etched onto the drug, but this form factor in my opinion is not as effective as labelling technology. Because verification requires inspection of an actual tablet using a field reader, this would mean that only drugs that have raised suspicion would be tested (Zadbuke et al., 2013).

As mentioned in the thesis here is another example on the slow to react and implement of important changes to regulation and anti-counterfeiting measures. The falsified medicines directive (FMD) was published back in 2011 with a goal to successfully implement it by 2018 (European Commission, 2011). Seven years to implement such measures is far too long. Especially with the rate of speed that counterfeiters operate and adapt, this is unacceptable. Laws need to be tightened to put consumer safety as the first priority and if pharmaceutical companies do not comply, heavy fines should be imposed.

One of the solutions to assist in detecting counterfeit and substandard medications could be to install testing facilities within hospitals staffed with trained personnel. Another solution could be independent analytical units within a region or a city as is the case in the U.K. with food safety testing. These units could random test those medications that routinely raise suspicion about their quality or effectiveness. This could provide an additional layer of safety before reaching patients. Additionally, it can indicate when counterfeits have entered the supply chain. The costs to implement such analytical units could be high but at least it would protect patients and reduce further complications. These units would be independent from regulators and drug companies removing any conflict of interest.

With the evidence from the USA of former government employees taking senior positions in large pharmaceutical companies, it is clear that a conflict of interest is present. This

could be a reason why regulations have never been put in place or are too relaxed, and are not challenged. This is despite the benefits of regulation outweighing the risks. One example is the link between the former U.S. Secretary of Defence and the approval of the sugar substitute "Aspartame". When a suspicion of a conflict of interest is raised, this needs to be investigated and addressed. You can always follow the money and there is no smoke without fire. With big pharmaceutical companies donating millions of dollars to political campaigns, these serve as an IOU for later years and consumers may no longer be a priority (Gennet, 2011).

#### **7.6 Possible further studies**

#### **7.6.1 Ciclosporin**

- 1. Analyse more capsules from a wider range of countries so adding to the existing list of generics.
- 2. Improve the method to investigate more impurities in both the generic and brand capsules.
- 3. Investigation of possible toxic effect from impurities in all capsules.

#### **7.6.2 Other drugs**

- 1. Set up a new study to measure the active ingredients of lisinopril in brand versus generic tablets obtained from different countries.
- 2. This will involve development of a nonspecific capillary electrophoresis method and a HPLC method for determination of active ingredients of lisinopril in tablets.
- 3. Development of a methodology that will enable us to accurately identify the impurities in both ciclosporin and lisinopril. This will involve development of either LC-MS or NMR methodology for identification of impurities

4. Set up a pharmacokinetic study in patients receiving brand versus generic ciclosporin and lisinopril formulations in order to accurately measure the efficacy/toxicity profile and the bioequivalence of the generic formulations

Alfazema & Perrett (1997) developed, using chemometrics, a generic MECC method to analyse complex urines and other unknowns (Alfazema et al., 1997). Cyclodextrins (CDs) are powerful modifiers of CE separations. With low-wavelength UV, sulphated-ß-CD-MECC can separate and detect both charged and uncharged species simultaneously

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Due to the nature of the counterfeit challenges, many of the references were only obtainable from regulatory health organisation websites such as the FDA, EMA, MHRA and WHO.

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## **Appendices**

## **Appendix 1: Raw Data for ciclosporin HPLC test A and B**

Table A1.1: Peak areas for ciclosporin brand S





Table A1.2: Peak areas for ciclosporin brand T



Table A1.3: Peak areas for ciclosporin brand P



Table A1.4: Peak areas for ciclosporin brand J



Table A1.5: Peak areas for ciclosporin brand E



Table A1.6: Peak areas for ciclosporin generic C



Table A1.7: Peak areas for ciclosporin generic I

Table A1.8: Ciclosporin capsules rupture times test A





## Table A1.9: Peak areas for ciclosporin brand Sa



## Table A1.10: Peak areas for ciclosporin brand TK



## Table A1.11: Peak areas for ciclosporin brand Pak



## Table A1.12: Peak areas for ciclosporin brand Jor



## Table A1.13: Peak areas for ciclosporin brand Egy



## Table A1.14: Peak areas for ciclosporin generic Col



Table A1.15: Peak areas for ciclosporin generic Ir



## Table A1.16: Peak areas for ciclosporin generic M





# **Appendix 2: UHPLC-MS results of the impurities detection in ciclosporin capsules**

Table A2.18: Impurities in ciclosporin capsules from Colombia (Col), in negative and positive modes



Table A2.19: Impurities in ciclosporin capsules from Egypt (Egy), in negative and positive modes





Table A2.20: Impurities in ciclosporin capsules from India (I), in negative and positive modes

Table A2.21: Impurities in ciclosporin capsules from Iran (Ir), in negative and positive modes





Table A2.22: Impurities in ciclosporin capsules from Jordan (Jor), in negative and positive modes

Table A2.23: Impurities in ciclosporin capsules from Morocco (M), in negative and positive modes





Table A2.24: Impurities in ciclosporin capsules from Pakistan (Pak), in negative and positive modes

Table A2.25: Impurities in ciclosporin capsules from Saudi (Sa), in negative and positive modes



# **Appendix 3: Metabolomic data analysis for ciclosporin capsules from Colombia (Col)**

Metabolomic Data Analysis with MetaboAnalyst 2.0

User ID: guest121709985554323475

December 9, 2014

#### Data Processing and Normalization 1

#### Reading and Processing the Raw Data  $1.1$

MetaboAnalyst accepts a variety of data types generated in metabolomic studies, including compound concentration data, binned NMR/MS spectra data, NMR/MS peak list data, as well as MS spectra (NetCDF, mzXML, mzDATA). Users need to specify the data types when uploading their data in order for MetaboAnalyst to select the correct algorithm to process them. Table 1 summarizes the result of the data processing steps.

### 1.1.1 Reading MS Peak List and Intensities Data

MS peak list and intensities data should be uploaded as one zip file. It contains subfoulders with one for each group. Each folder contains peak list files, one per spectrum. The MS peak list format is either a two-column (mass and intensities) or three-column (mass, retention time, and intensities) comma separated values. The first line is assumed to be column labels. The files should be saved in .csv format. For paired analysis, users need to upload separately a text file specifying the paired information. Each pair is indicated by their sample names seperated by a colon "." with one pair per line.

The uploaded files are peak lists and intensities data. A total of 10 samples were found. These samples contain a total of 3860 peaks. with an average of 386 peaks per sample

### 1.1.2 Peak Matching and Alignment

Peaks need to be matched across samples in order to be compared. For two-column data, the program matches peaks by their m/z values. For three-column data, the program will further group peaks based on their retention time. During the process, mz and rt of each peak will be changed to their group median values. If a sample has more than one peak in a group, they will be replaced by their sum. Some peaks are excluded if they appear in less than half of both classes. The aligned peaks are reorganized into a single data matrix for further analysis. The name of the parent folder is used as class label for each sample.

A total of 373 peak groups were formed. Peaks of the same group were summed if they are from one sample. Peaks appear in less than half of samples in each group were ignored.

### 1.1.3 Data Integrity Check

Before data analysis, a data integrity check is performed to make sure that all the necessary information has been collected. The class labels must be present and contain only two classes. If samples are paired. the class label must be from  $-n/2$  to -1 for one group, and 1 to  $n/2$  for the other group (n is the sample number and must be an even number). Class labels with same absolute value are assumed to be pairs. Compound concentration or peak intensity values should all be non-negative numbers. By default, all missing values, zeros and negative values will be replaced by the half of the minimum positive value found within the data (see next section)

### 1.1.4 Missing value imputations

Too many zeroes or missing values will cause difficulties for downstream analysis. MetaboAnalyst offers several different methods for this purpose. The default method replaces all the missing and zero values with a small values (the half of the minimum positive values in the original data) assuming to be the detection limit. The assumption of this approach is that most missing values are caused by low abundance metabolites (i.e.below the detection limit). In addition, since zero values may cause problem for data. normalization (i.e. log), they are also replaced with this small value. User can also specify other methods, such as replace by mean/median, or use K-Nearest Neighbours, Probabilistic PCA (PPCA), Bayesian PCA (BPCA) method, Singular Value Decomposition (SVD) method to impute the missing values <sup>1</sup>. Please choose the one that is the most appropriate for your data.

Zero or missing variables were replaced with a small value: 2.8153854225

### 1.1.5 Data Filtering

The purpose of the data filtering is to identify and remove variables that are unlikely to be of use when modeling the data. No phenotype information are used in the filtering process, so the result can be used with any downstream analysis. This step can usually improves the results. Data filter is strongly recommended for datasets with large number of variables  $(>250)$  datasets contain much noise (i.e.chemometrics data). Filtering can usually improve your results<sup>2</sup>

For data with number of variables  $<$  250, this step will reduce 5% of variables; For variable number between 250 and 500, 10% of variables will be removed; For variable number bwteen 500 and 1000, 25% of variables will be removed; And 40% of variabled will be removed for data with over 1000 varaibles.

No data filtering was performed.



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Stacklies W, Redestig H, Scholz M, Walther D, Selbig J. pcaMethods: a bioconductor package, providing PCA methods: for incomplete data., Bioinformatics 2007 23(9):1164-1167

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Hackstadt AJ, Hess AM.Filtering for increased power for microarray data analysis, BMC Bioinformatics. 2009; 10: 11.

### 1.2 Data Normalization

The data is stored as a table with one sample per row and one variable (bin/peak/metabolite) per column. The normalization procedures implemented below are grouped into four categories. Sample specific normalization allows users to manually adjust concentrations based on biological inputs (i.e. volume, mass); row-wise normalization allows general-purpose adjustment for differences among samples; data transformation and scaling are two different approaches to make features more comparable. You can use one or combine both to achieve better results.

The normalization consists of the following options:

- 1. Sample specific normalization (i.e. normalize by dry weight, volume)
- 2. Row-wise procedures:
	- Normalization by the sum
	- Normalization by the sample median
	- Normalization by a reference sample (probabilistic quotient normalization) $3$
	- Normalization by a reference feature (i.e. creatinine, internal control)
- 3. Data transformation :
	- $\bullet$  Generalized log transformation (glog 2)
	- Cube root transformation
- 4. Data scaling:
	- Unit scaling (mean-centered and divided by standard deviation of each variable)
	- . Pareto scaling (mean-centered and divided by the square root of standard deviation of each variable)
	- Range scaling (mean-centered and divided by the value range of each variable)

Figure 1 shows the effects before and after normalization.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>Dieterle F, Ross A, Schlotterbeck G, Senn H. Probabilistic quotient normalization as robust method to account for dilution of complex biological mixtures. Application in 1H NMR metabonomics, 2006, Anal Chem 78 (13);4281 - 4290

### Statistical and Machine Learning Data Analysis  $\overline{2}$

MetaboAnalyst offers a variety of methods commonly used in metabolomic data analyses. They include:

- 1. Univariate analysis methods:
	- Fold Change Analysis
	- $\bullet$  T-tests
	- Volcano Plot
	- . One-way ANOVA and post-hoc analysis
	- Correlation analysis
- 2. Multivariate analysis methods:
	- Principal Component Analysis (PCA)
	- · Partial Least Squares Discriminant Analysis (PLS-DA)
- 3. Robust Feature Selection Methods in microarray studies
	- Significance Analysis of Microarray (SAM)
	- Empirical Bayesian Analysis of Microarray (EBAM)
- 4. Clustering Analysis
	- Hierarchical Clustering
		- $-$  Dendrogram
		- $-$  Heatmap
	- Partitional Clustering
		- K-means Clustering
		- Self-Organizing Map (SOM)
- 5. Supervised Classification and Feature Selection methods
	- Random Forest
	- Support Vector Machine (SVM)

Please note: some advanced methods are available only for two-group sample analyais.



Figure A3.1: Score plot between the selected PCs



Figure A3.2: 3D score plot between the selected PCs

# **Appendix 4: The protocol of the bioequivalence study between Mazit 250 mg (test product) and Zithromax™ 250 mg in healthy subjects**

Bioequivalence study of Neopharma, UAE Mazit capsules 250 mg (250 mg azithromycin per capsule) relative to Zithromax™ manufactured by Pfizer Italia S.R.L., Italy under authority of Pfizer Inc., USA. (250 mg azithromycin per capsule), after oral administration of 500 mg to healthy adults under fasting conditions

### **International Pharmaceutical Research Centre (IPRC), Jordan**

**Sponsor:** Neopharma, UAE **Drug Identification:** Azithromycin **Drug Class:** Macrolides Antibiotic **Protocol Code:** AZI-C017 **Study Code:** AZI-NEO-C0409/685

**Date:** August 17, 2009

International Pharmaceutical Research Centre (IPRC) IPRC Study Code: AZI-NEO-C0409/685

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International Pharmaceutical Research Centre (IPRC)<br>IPRC Study Code: AZI-NEO-C0409/685

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**Study Synopsis** 

Sponsor: Neopharma Generic name: Azithromycin Test product: Mazit capsules 250 mg Reference product: Zithromax™ Study title: Bioequivalence study of Neopharma, UAE Mazit capsules 250 mg (250 mg azithromycin per capsule) relative to Zithromax™ manufactured by Pfizer Italia S.R.L., Italy under authority of Pfizer Inc., USA. (250 mg azithromycin per capsule). after oral administration of 500 mg to healthy adults under fasting conditions Objectives: To investigate the bioequivalence of Mazit capsules 250 mg (250 mg azithromycin per capsule) from (Neopharma, UAE) (Test product) relative to Zithromax™ (250 mg azithromycin per capsule), manufactured by (Pfizer Italia S.R.L. Italy), under authority of Pfizer Inc., USA., (Reference product) after a single oral dose administration of 500 mg of each to healthy adults under fasting conditions. Dosage regimen: Treatment A (Test product): Single-dose, two capsules of Mazit Capsules 250 mg (250 mg azithromycin per capsule) Batch No. AZA8002, Exp. Date: 09/10 Treatment B (Reference product): Single-dose, two capsules of Zithromax™ (250 mg azithromycin per capsule) Batch No. 86408002. Exp. Date: 03/13 Clinical laboratories: IPRC clinical laboratories. Study subjects: The study protocol called for 24 healthy volunteers. Study periods: Screening: 16/04/2009, Enrolment: 22/04/2009 Period 1: 23/04/2009, Period 2: 14/05/2009

First Sample: 23/04/2009, Last sample: 17/05/2009

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## 1. Introduction

This study was performed to investigate the bioequivalence of azithromycin between test product Mazit capsules 250 mg (250 mg azithromycin per capsule; Neopharma, UAE), and reference product Zithromax™ (250 mg azithromycin per capsule; Pfizer Inc., USA). The study protocol called for 24 healthy volunteers plus 1-4 alternates. The subjects received two capsules of Mazit capsules 250 mg (250 mg azithromycin per capsule) and two capsules of Zithromax™ (250 mg azithromycin per capsule) in a randomised fashion with a washout period of 21 days. 28 healthy volunteers enrolled and completed the crossover. The bioanalysis of clinical plasma samples was accomplished by LC/MS/MS detector which was developed and validated in accordance with international guidelines at the IPRC. Pharmacokinetic parameters, determined by standard non-compartmental methods, and ANOVA statistics were calculated using Minitab 17 Statistical Software. The 90% confidence intervals for the ratio (or difference) between the test and reference product pharmacokinetic parameters of Cmax and truncated AUC0-72 were calculated.

In conclusion, the study demonstrated that the test product, Mazit capsules 250 mg (Neopharma, UAE), 250 mg azithromycin per capsule, is bioequivalent to the reference product, Zithromax™ (Pfizer Inc., USA) 250 mg azithromycin per capsule, following an oral dose of two capsules (500 mg azithromycin).

This report is issued in consensus with the ICH guidelines concerning the structure and content of the clinical study reports adopted by EMEA.

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## 1.1. Chemistry

Azithromycin an azalide, a subclass of macrolide antibiotics, for oral administration.

Azithromycin has the chemical name (2R,3S,4R,5R,8R,10R,11R,12S,13S,14R)-13-[(2.6-dideoxy-3-C-methyl-3-O-methyl-α-L-ribo-hexopyranosyl)oxyl-2-ethyl-3.4.10trihydroxy-3.5.6.8.10.12.14-heptamethyl-11-[[3.4.6-trideoxy-3-(dimethylamino)- B-D-xylo-hexopyranosyl]oxy]-1-oxa-6-azacyclopentadecan-15-one. Azithromycin is derived from erythromycin; however, it differs chemically from erythromycin in that a methyl-substituted nitrogen atom is incorporated into the lactone ring. Its molecular formula is C<sub>38</sub>H<sub>72</sub>N<sub>20</sub> 12, and its molecular weight is 749.00.

Azithromycin, as the dihydrate, is a white crystalline powder with a molecular formula of C38H72N2O12.2H2O and a molecular weight of 785.0.

Azithromycin is supplied for oral administration as film-coated, modified capsular shaped tablets containing azithromycin dihydrate equivalent to either 250 mg or 500 mg azithromycin.

## 1.2. Pharmacology

Azithromycin acts by binding to the 50S ribosomal subunit of susceptible microorganisms and, thus, interfering with microbial protein synthesis. Nucleic acid synthesis is not affected.

## 1.3. Pharmacokinetics

Following oral administration of a single 500 mg dose (two 250 mg tablets) to 36 fasted healthy male volunteers, the mean (SD) pharmacokinetic parameters were AUCo- $\eta$  = 4.3 (1.2)  $\mu$ g·h/mL; Cmax = 0.5 (0.2)  $\mu$ g/mL; Tmax= 2.2 (0.9) hours.

With a regimen of 500 mg (two 250 mg capsules) on day 1, followed by 250 mg daily (one 250 mg capsule) on days 2 through 5, the pharmacokinetic parameters of azithromycin in plasma in healthy young adults (18-40 years of age) are portrayed in the chart below. C<sub>min</sub> and C<sub>max</sub> remained essentially unchanged from day 2 through day 5 of therapy.

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In a two-way crossover study, 12 adult healthy volunteers (6 males, 6 females) received 1,500 mg of azithromycin administered in single daily doses over either 5 days (two 250 mg tablets on day 1, followed by one 250 mg tablet on days 2-5) or 3 days (500 mg per day for days 1-3). Due to limited serum samples on day 2 (3-day regimen) and days 2-4 (5-day regimen), the serum concentration-time profile of each subject was fit to a 3-compartment model and the AUC<sub>0-∞</sub> for the fitted concentration profile was comparable between the 5-day and 3-day regimens.

Median azithromycin exposure AUC<sub>0-∞</sub> in mononuclear (MN) and polymorphonuclear (PMN) leukocytes following either the 5-day or 3-day regimen was more than a 1000-fold and 800-fold greater than in serum, respectively. Administration of the same total dose with either the 5-day or 3- day regimen may be expected to provide comparable concentrations of azithromycin within MN and PMN leukocytes. Two azithromycin 250 mg tablets are bioequivalent to a single 500 mg tablet

#### 1.4. Indications

Azithromycin is indicated for the treatment of patients with mild to moderate infections caused by susceptible strains of the designated microorganisms in the specific conditions listed below.

Acute bacterial exacerbations of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease due to Haemophilus influenzae, Moraxella catarrhalis or Streptococcus pneumoniae.

Acute bacterial sinusitis due to Haemophilus iniluenzae. Moraxella catarrhalis or Streptococcus pneumoniae.

Community-acquired pneumonia due to Chlamydia pneumoniae, Haemophilus injluenzae. Mycoplasma pneumoniae or Streptococcus pneumoniae in patients appropriate for oral therapy.

Pharyngitis/tonsillitis caused by Streptococcus pyogenes as an alternative to first-line therapy in individuals who cannot use first-line therapy.

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Uncomplicated skin and skin structure infections due to Staphylococcus aureus, Streptococcus pyogenes, or Streptococcus agalactiae. Abscesses usually require surgical drainage.

Urethritis and cervicitis due to Chlamydia trachomatis or Neisseria gonorrhoeae.

Genital ulcer disease in men due to Haemophilus ducreyi (chancroid). Due to the small number of women included in clinical trials, the efficacy of azithromycin in the treatment of chancroid in women has not been established.

Azithromycin, at the recommended dose, should not be relied upon to treat syphilis. Antimicrobial agents used in high doses for short periods of time to treat nongonococcal urethritis may mask or delay the symptoms of incubating syphilis. All patients with sexually-transmitted urethritis or cervicitis should have a serologic test for syphilis and appropriate cultures for gonorrhea performed at the time of diagnosis. Appropriate antimicrobial therapy and follow-up tests for these diseases should be initiated if infection is confirmed

Appropriate culture and susceptibility tests should be performed before treatment to determine the causative organism and its susceptibility to azithromycin. Therapy with azithromycin may be initiated before results of these tests are known; once the results become available, antimicrobial therapy should be adjusted accordingly.

To reduce the development of drug-resistant bacteria and maintain the effectiveness of azithromycin and other antibacterial drugs, azithromycin should be used only to treat or prevent infections that are proven or strongly suspected to be caused by susceptible bacteria. When culture and susceptibility information are available, they should be considered in selecting or modifying antibacterial therapy. In the absence of such data, local epidemiology and susceptibility patterns may contribute to the empiric selection of therapy.

## 1.5. Adverse events

Gastrointestinal tract: diarrhoea, loose stools, abdominal complaints pain, spasm, flatulence, nausea and vomiting. In patients with severe and persistent diarrhoea, the possibility of life-threatening pseudomembraneous colitis should be borne in mind.

Hepatobiliary system: A reversible increase in liver enzymes (transminases, alkaline phosphatase) and in serum bilirubin were rarely observed.

Blood and blood corpuscles: neutropenia were observed in individual cases.

Hypersensitivity reactions: are rare during treatment and include reactions of skin and mucosa such as reddening with or without pruritus. Reversible local swellings of skin, mucosa or joints (angioedema) and acute allergic general reactions (anaphylaxis) have been reported in rare cases.

Miscellaneous: superinfection with non-susceptible organisms, including fungi.

### 1.6. Drug interactions

Co-administration of nelfinavir at steady-state with a single oral dose of azithromycin resulted in increased azithromycin serum concentrations. Although a dose adjustment of azithromycin is not recommended when administered in combination with nelfinavir, close monitoring for known side effects of azithromycin, such as liver enzyme abnormalities and hearing impairment, is warranted.

Azithromycin did not affect the prothrombin time response to a single dose of warfarin. However, prudent medical practice dictates careful monitoring of prothrombin time in all patients treated with azithromycin and warfarin concomitantly. Concurrent use of macrolides and warfarin in clinical practice has been associated with increased anticoagulant effects.

Drug interaction studies were performed with azithromycin and other drugs likely to be co-administered. When used in therapeutic doses, azithromycin had a modest effect on the pharmacokinetics of atorvastatin, carbamazepine, cetirizine, didanosine,

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efavirenz, fluconazole, indinavir, midazolam, rifabutin, sildenafil, theophylline (intravenous and oral), triazolam, trimethoprim/sulfamethoxazole or zidovudine. Coadministration with efavirenz, or fluconazole had a modest effect on the pharmacokinetics of azithromycin. No dosage adjustment of either drug is recommended when azithromycin is co-administered with any of the above agents.

Interactions with the drugs listed below have not been reported in clinical trials with azithromycin; however, no specific drug interaction studies have been performed to evaluate potential drug-drug interaction. Nonetheless, they have been observed with macrolide products. Until further data are developed regarding drug interactions when azithromycin and these drugs are used concomitantly, careful monitoring of patients is advised:

Digoxin-elevated digoxin concentrations.

Ergotamine or dihydroergotamine - acute ergot toxicity characterized by severe peripheral vasospasm and dysesthesia.

Terfenadine, cyclosporine, hexobarbital and phenytoin concentrations

## 1.7. Warnings

Serious allergic reactions, including angioedema, anaphylaxis, and dermatologic reactions including Stevens Johnson Syndrome and toxic epidermal necrolysis have been reported rarely in patients on azithromycin therapy. Although rare, fatalities have been reported. Despite initially successful symptomatic treatment of the allergic symptoms, when symptomatic therapy was discontinued, the allergic symptoms recurred soon thereafter in some patients without further azithromycin exposure. These patients required prolonged periods of observation and symptomatic treatment. The relationship of these episodes to the long tissue half-life of azithromycin and subsequent prolonged exposure to antigen is unknown at present.

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If an allergic reaction occurs, the drug should be discontinued and appropriate therapy should be instituted. Physicians should be aware that reappearance of the allergic symptoms may occur when symptomatic therapy is discontinued.

In the treatment of pneumonia, azithromycin has only been shown to be safe and effective in the treatment of community-acquired pneumonia due to Chlamydia pneumoniae, Haemophilus influenzae, Mycoplasma pneumoniae or Streptococcus pneumoniae in patients appropriate for oral therapy. Azithromycin should not be used in patients with pneumonia who are judged to be inappropriate for oral therapy because of moderate to severe illness or risk factors such as any of the following: patients with cystic fibrosis, patients with nosocomially acquired infections, patients with known or suspected bacteremia, patients requiring hospitalization, elderly or debilitated patients, or patients with significant underlying health problems that may compromise their ability to respond to their illness (including immunodeficiency or functional asplenia).

Clostridium difficile associated diarrhea (CDAD) has been reported with use of nearly all antibacterial agents, including azithromycin, and may range in severity from mild diarrhea to fatal colitis. Treatment with antibacterial agents alters the normal flora of the colon leading to overgrowth of C.difficile.

C. difficile produces toxins A and B which contribute to the development of CDAD. Hypertoxin producing strains of C. difficile cause increased morbidity and mortality, as these infections can be refractory to antimicrobial therapy and may require colectomy. CDAD must be considered in all patients who present with diarrhea following antibiotic use. Careful medical history is necessary since CDAD has been reported to occur over two months after the administration of antibacterial agents.

If CDAD is suspected or confirmed, ongoing antibiotic use not directed against C. difficile may need to be discontinued. Appropriate fluid and electrolyte management, protein supplementation, antibiotic treatment of C. difficile, and surgical evaluation should be instituted as clinically indicated.

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### 1.8. Precautions

General: Because azithromycin is principally eliminated via the liver, caution should be exercised when azithromycin is administered to patients with impaired hepatic function. Due to the limited data in subjects with GFR < 10 mL/min, caution should be exercised when prescribing azithromycin in these patients.

Prolonged cardiac repolarization and QT interval, imparting a risk of developing cardiac arrhythmia and torsades de pointes, have been seen in treatment with other macrolides. A similar effect with azithromycin cannot be completely ruled out in patients at increased risk for prolonged cardiac repolarization.

Prescribing azithromycin in the absence of a proven or strongly suspected bacterial infection or a prophylactic indication is unlikely to provide benefit to the patient and increases the risk of the development of drug-resistant bacteria.

Carcinogenesis, Mutagenesis, Impairment of Fertility: Long-term studies in animals have not been performed to evaluate carcinogenic potential. Azithromycin has shown no mutagenic potential in standard laboratory tests: mouse lymphoma assay, human lymphocyte clastogenic assay, and mouse bone marrow clastogenic assay. No evidence of impaired fertility due to azithromycin was found.

Pregnancy: Teratogenic Effects. Pregnancy Category B: Reproduction studies have been performed in rats and mice at doses up to moderately maternally toxic dose concentrations (i.e., 200 mg/kg/day). These doses, based on a mg/m<sup>2</sup> basis, are estimated to be 4 and 2 times, respectively, the human daily dose of 500 mg. In the animal studies, no evidence of harm to the fetus due to azithromycin was found. There are, however, no adequate and well-controlled studies in pregnant women. Because animal reproduction studies are not always predictive of human response. azithromycin should be used during pregnancy only if clearly needed.

Nursing Mothers: It is not known whether azithromycin is excreted in human milk. Because many drugs are excreted in human milk, caution should be exercised when azithromycin is administered to a nursing woman.

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## 1.9. Contraindications

Azithromycin is contraindicated in patients with known hypersensitivity to azithromycin, erythromycin, any macrolide or ketolide antibiotic.

# 2. Selection of study population

For participation in the study, subjects had to meet the selection criteria outlined in the study protocol. Volunteers were informed, by IPRC representative, about the aim of the study and any potential risk associated with the study. Volunteers signed a written Informed Consent statement after which they were run in the study, and they were free to withdraw at any time during the course of the study.

## 2.1. Study subjects demography

The following demographic data for each subject were obtained:

- · Name, sex, age, height, weight, date of birth, race, medical history, vital signs and drug of abuse tests, caffeine, alcohol and tobacco intake.
- Complete physical examination and ECG
- · Urine analysis and Blood (haematology, biochemistry and serology).

## 2.2. Subjects identification

On screening subjects were identified solely by their initials. On admission for period one participating subjects were assigned numbers in sequential order. The subjects retained their numbers for the duration of the study. For subsequent data processing and reporting, subjects were identified only by using the numbers they were assigned and their initials

## 2.3. Case Report Form Note

All data of the clinical part of the study was documented in case .report forms (CRFs) by the staff of the IPRC. The Principal Investigator checked correct completion of the

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case report forms. IPRC performed quality assurance of case report forms' data entry by comparison with source records.

## 2.4. Confinement

According to the study protocol in each study period the subjects were admitted to the study site in the evening before study drug administration on study day 1 of each study period and confined until the 24-hour blood sample was collected and returned to donate the rest of samples.

### 2.5. Study drug administration

On study day 1 of each study period, the study drugs were administered according to a randomization plan. The administration of the study drugs was documented in the drug administration form.

Study drugs were administered by the clinical staff of IPRC as follows:

Treatment A: Two capsules of Mazit capsules 250 mg, test product, 250 mg azithromycin per capsule was given with 240 ml of water. Water was at room temperature and was measured with a 250 ml cylinder.

Treatment B: Two capsules of Zithromax™, reference product, 250 mg azithromycin per capsule was given with 240 ml of water. Water was at room temperature and was measured with a 250 ml cylinder.

## 2.6. Blood samples

In the morning of study day 1 of each study period and before study's drugs administration, a cannula was inserted into the subject's forearm vein and remained there until the 24-hour blood sample was collected and then the subject returned to donate the rest of samples.

The volume of blood taken for determination of azithromycin in plasma was 8 mL per sample. The following blood samples for the analysis of azithromycin in plasma were

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collected immediately before (2 x 8 mL) at 0.00 (pre- dose) and at 0.33, 0.66, 1.00, 1.33, 1.66, 2.00, 2.50, 3.00, 3.50, 4.00, 4.50, 5.00, 6.00, 8.00, 10.00, 12.00, 16.00, 24.00, 48.00 and 72.00 hours. (1 x 8 mL) after administration of study drugs. The number of blood collections for drug analysis was 22 samples in each study period.

## 3. Saftey evaluation

Adverse events encountered during the study were minimal. The study outcome will help ensure safe and clinically reliable management of acute bacterial exacerbations of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, acute bacterial sinusitis, community-acquired pneumonia, pharyngitis/tonsillitis, uncomplicated skin and skin structure infections, urethritis and cervicitis, genital ulcer disease therefore, benefiting society by lowering treatment costs. The drug is a prescribed medication, we therefore conclude that in view of the small risks involved, it was significant to perform this study.

### 3.1. Adverse events during the study

The study's subjects were asked to inform the clinical staff of occurrence of any AE immediately once experienced. Furthermore, the clinical staff was instructed to check on the subjects for the occurrence of any AE at specified time intervals (before dosing, 1.00, 2.00, 3.00, 4.00, 7.00, 9.00 and 12.00 hours from study drugs administration) and to notify immediately the study physician. The study physician monitored closely the subjects for AE and took all necessary actions that he saw best in the subject's interest. None of the subjects dropped out from the study because of adverse events.

### 3.2. Clinical laboratory evaluation

Medical histories and the laboratory tests of haematology, serology, biochemistry and urinalysis. Were all performed for each subject on screening examination. Only medically healthy subjects with clinically normal laboratory profiles were enrolled in the study.

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#### 3.3. Vital signs, physical assesment and other clinical oservation

Each subject received a thorough physical assessment, vital signs evaluation (blood pressure, pulse, respiratory rate and temperature) and ECG on screening examination. The subjects received the same physical assessment and vital signs evaluation and ECG plus liver functions test on follow up examination, which was within at least 24 hours from collecting the last sample in period 2.

# 4. Ethics considerations

## 4.1. Basic principle

This research will be carried out in accordance with conditions stipulated by international clinical research guidelines and the principles enunciated in the Declaration of Helsinki resolved in Helsinki in 1964 and amended in Scotland, 2000; note added in Washington, 2002, note added in Tokyo 2004 also an updated was done in Seoul 2008 and the ICH harmonised tripartite guideline regarding Good Clinical Practice (GCP) adopted by the European Agency for the Evaluation of Medicinal Products. In addition, all local regulatory requirements will be adhered to, in particular those which afford greater protection to the safety of the study participants.

#### 4.2. Institutional Review Board (IRB)

The Institutional Review Board of the IPRC will review the protocol and the study will not start until the Board has approved the protocol or a modification thereof. The Board is constituted and operates in accordance with the principles and requirements described in the Guidelines on Research Involving Human Subjects. All amendments to the study protocol are to be sent to the IRB for approval.

### 4.3. Informed consent

The purpose of the study, the procedures to be carried out and the potential hazards will be describe to the subjects in non-technical terms. Subjects will be required to read, sign and date a consent for summarising the discussion prior to enrolment and will be assured that they may withdraw from the study at any time without jeopardising their medical care. Each subject will be given a copy of the consent form.

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#### 4.4. Subject confidentiality

All communications and documents relevant to subjects in the study will identify each subject only by the subjects' initials or by the subjects' study numbers.

## 4.5. Subjects indemnity

The sponsor will provide the insurance with the legal and financial coverage against claims arising from the study medications. This indemnity will be mediated by the International Pharmaceutical Research Centre, before conducting the study. The cost of treatment of study subjects in the event of study-related injuries are settled on and stated in the contract of the insurance company. Each subject will be informed about his indemnity in the Informed Consent Form (ICF), with clear and complete declaration for the undertaken responsibility.

In the event of a study-related injury, the clinical staff of the IPRC will provide immediate medical treatment, free of charge and provide subsequent referrals to the appropriate health care facilities. The IPRC, on behalf of the sponsor, will be responsible for the financial coverage of all the medical expenses of injuries suffered as a result of participating in this study.

## 4.6. Subjects compensation

Compensation process will be defined for cases of withdrawals, completion, termination and suspension. The method and manner of compensation by which study subjects will receive their payment would be stated clearly in the Informed Consent Form (ICF).

#### 5. Data analysis

## 5.1. Pharmacokinetic analysis

Cmax and truncated AUCo-72 are considered the primary pharmacokinetic parameters, while t<sub>max</sub> and AUC<sub>0-20</sub> are defined as secondary pharmacokinetic parameters. Pharmacokinetic parameters will be calculated as follows using the Minitab 17 computer program:

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AUC<sub>0-72</sub>: The area under the plasma concentration versus time curve, from time (0) to 72 hours, as calculated by the linear trapezoidal method.

AUC<sub>0-20</sub>: The area under the plasma concentration versus time curve from time (0) to infinity.  $AUC_{0-\infty}$  is calculated as the sum of the  $AUC_{0-1}$  plus the ratio of the last measurable plasma concentration to the elimination rate constant.

C<sub>max</sub>: Maximum measured plasma concentration over the time span specified.

t<sub>max</sub>: Time of the maximum measured plasma concentration. If the maximum value occurs at more than one time point, tmax is defined as the first time point with this value.

### 5.2. Analysis of variation

Analyses of variance will be performed on the untransformed pharmacokinetic parameters listed above. Additionally, logarithmically transformed data will be used for analysis of truncated AUCo-72 and Cmax. The analysis of variance model will include sequence; subjects nested within sequence, period and drug formulation as factors, employing 5% level of significance. The significance of the sequence effect will be tested using the subjects nested within sequence, as the error term.

#### 5.3. Confidence intervals and bioequivalence evaluation

Consistent with the two one-sided tests for bioequivalence, 90% confidence intervals for the difference between drug formulation means will be calculated for the logtransformed parameters truncated AUCo-72 and Cmax for azithromvcin. The confidence intervals will be expressed as a percentage relative to the means of the reference formulation. The geometric mean values for the (test/reference) ratios of truncated AUC0-72 and Cmax will be reported to define the point estimate. The confidence intervals of logarithmically transformed (test/reference) ratios for C<sub>max</sub> and truncated AUC<sub>0-72</sub> to be within 80.00-125.00%.

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### 5.4. Sample size calculation

Previous studies carried concerning Azithromycin in IPRC indicated that the variability does not imply large sample size to be employed for bioequivalence determination, calculated sample size showed that a minimum of 12 subjects will be adequate. Sample size calculation is based on the power of Schuirmann's two onesided tests procedure for interval hypotheses using the  $\pm 20$  rule for the assessment of average bioequivalence.

# 6. Final report, supplemtary documentation and publication policy

Final Report: All reporting will be performed by IPRC. The final report will address all aspects of the study and will include the interpretation of all relevant data and any conclusions from them. A copy from the final report shall be reserved by IPRC after the completing the study. A sample informed consent form, a sample CRF, a copy of the IRB approval and the bioanalytical method validation report will be appended to the final report. The subjects' CRFs, clinical laboratory tests; a set of representative authentic clinical sample chromatograms with their results, standard calibration curves and quality control samples shall be supplemented on request. The final report shall be signed by the IPRC Investigator(s) and submitted to the sponsor with the other study supplements.

Source Documents: Source documents include original documents, data, and records (e.g., hospital records, clinical and office charts, laboratory notes, memoranda, accountability records, recorded data from automated instruments, informed consent forms, case report forms, bioanalytical results and chromatograms, pharmacokinetic spreadsheets, copies or transcriptions certified after verification as being accurate copies, microfiches, photographic negatives, microfilms or magnetic media, x-rays, subject files, and records kept at any department involved in the trial). All source documents generated in connection with this study will be retained in the limited access file storage area of IPRC, respecting the privacy and confidentiality of all records that could identify the subjects. Direct access is allowed only for authorized people for monitoring and auditing purposes. Source documents shall be handled,

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stored and archived according to in-house procedures to assure for accurate reporting, interpretation and verification, under the supervision of the Quality Assurance Unit.

Publication Policy: All information concerning Mazit capsules 250 mg and the Sponsor operations. such as patent applications, formulae, manufacturing processes, basic scientific data or formulation information, supplied by Sponsor and not previously published is considered confidential by the Principal Investigator and Study **Director** 

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**Appendix 5: The Research Ethics Committee approval for the bioequivalence study of Mazit 250 mg (test product) and Zithromax™ 250 mg (reference product)** 

٢  $-3.3$ القاريخ لموافق السادة المركز العالمي للأبحاث الصبدلانية تحية طيبة وبعد... إشارة إلى كتابكم رقم بلا بتاريخ 2009/4/9 بخصوص دراسة التكافؤ الحيوي التالية : Comparative, randomized, single dose, two-way crossover open-label study to determine the bioequivalence of Neopharma, UAE Mazit Capsules 250mg (250mg) Azithromycin / Capsule) relative to Zithromax<sup>TM</sup> Manufactured by Pfizer Italia<br>S.R.L., Italy Under Authority of Pfizer INC., USA. (250mg Azithromycin / Capsule), after an oral administration of 500mg to healthy adults under fasting conditions. Protocol Code No.: AZI-C017 والمقدمة تحت الرقم 28/BioNR/09 وبعد الإطلاع ، ويناءا على تنسيب لجنة الدراسات الدوانية فسي جلسستها المنعقدة بتساريخ 2009/4/14 أعلمكم بالموافقة على إجراء الدراسة بالبروتوكول أعلاه بعد تزويد قسم الدراســــات الدوانيــــة / المؤســــ  $\tilde{A}_{++}$ العامة للغذاء والدواء بإلتزامكم بإجراء فمحوصات الECG, Hematology, Biochemistry للمشاركين إذا كانت الفترة بين إجراء فحوصات الScreening وإجراء الفترة الثانية من الدراسة شـــهر فـــأكثر مـــع ضرورة الإلتزام بقانون إجراء الدراسات الدوائية رقم 67 لسنة 2001 والملاحق الصادرة عنه. واقبلوا تحياتى،،، وزيــر الصحة الدكتور خابق هايل الفايز - نسخة / قسم الدراسات الدوائية HLCTU2/15/2009  $c_0$   $12$   $10$ جبل عمان – الدوار الثالث – ص.ب 195118 الرمز البريدي 11181 - هاتف : 4602000 – تلفاكس : 4618425-6-962+ Amman - Jordan Tel. 4602000 - Telefax: +962 - 6 - 4618425 P.O.Box 811951 P.C 11181 - www.jfda.jo

#### Translation of the Research Ethics Committee approval for the bioequivalence study The Food and Drug Administration Amman, Jordan

 $No.: 6/119$ Date: 2/4/1437 Date: 23/April/2009

#### To the International Centre for Pharmaceutical Research

#### Greetings.

Reference to your letter dated on 9/April/2009 regarding the following bioequivalence study: Comparative, randomised, single dose, two-way crossover open-label study to determine the bioequivalence of Neopharma, UAE Mazit Capsules (250mg Azithromycin/ Capsules) relative to Zithromax™ Manufactured by Pfizer Italia S.R.L, Italy Under Authority of Pfizer INC., USA. (250mg Azithromycin/ Capsules), after an oral administration of 500mg to healthy adults under fasting conditions. Protocol Code No.: AZI-C017

Which is submitted under the following number: 28/BioNR/09

After reviewing and based on the recommendation of the Research Ethics Committee of pharmacological studies meeting which is held on 14/April/2009 I would like to inform you of the approval of the study protocol mentioned above, after providing the pharmaceutical department/Food and Drug Administration your commitment to do the following screening test: ECG, Haematology, and Biochemistry to all participants in the study if the period between conducting the screening examinations and the second period of the study is one month or more, with the necessity to comply with the Law of Pharmaceutical Studies No. 67/ year 2001 and the supplements issued.

Best regards,

Minister of Health

Dr. Nayef Hayel Al-Fayez

Copy / Department of Pharmaceutical Studies

Translated By B. Alfonan  $Signature$ 

Approved by: ESSAM KERWASH Signature  $5500 \text{ K}$ 

Professor Atholl Johnston FRCPath Queen Man's and The London London, ECTM 680, UK

 $\rightarrow$ 

# **Appendix 6: Raw data for all subjects who participated in the bioequivalence study of Mazit 250 mg (test product) and Zithromax™ 250 mg (reference product)**

Table A6.26: Schedule of vital signs, physical assessment and other clinical observations during the bioequivalence study



\* Study drugs will be administered with 240 ml water. Fluids intake is not allowed from 1-hour prior study drug administration, until one hour after study drug administration. There after, the subjects will be allowed to drink water as desired



Table A6.27: Subjects and reasons of withdrawal from the bioequivalence study



Table A6.28: Demographic data and individual values for eligible subjects included in the bioequivalence study



Table A6.29: Drug administration times for all subjects in period 1 and 2



Table A6.30: Adverse events for all subjects during the study

No: Adverse event(s) did not occur.<br>Yes: Adverse event(s) did occur.



Figure A6.3: Concentration of Mazit compared to Zithromax™ (Subject 2)



Figure A6.4: Logarithmic concentration of Mazit compared to Zithromax™ (Subject 2)



Figure A6.5: Concentration of Mazit compared to Zithromax™ (Subject 3)



Figure A6.6: Logarithmic concentration of Mazit compared to Zithromax™ (Subject 3)



Figure A6.7: Concentration of Mazit compared to Zithromax™ (Subject 4)



Figure A6.8: Logarithmic concentration of Mazit compared to Zithromax™ (Subject 4)



Figure A6.9: Concentration of Mazit compared to Zithromax™ (Subject 5)



Figure A6.10: Logarithmic concentration of Mazit compared to Zithromax™ (Subject 5)



Figure A6.11: Concentration of Mazit compared to Zithromax™ (Subject 6)



Figure A6.12: Logarithmic concentration of Mazit compared to Zithromax™ (Subject 6)



Figure A6.13: Concentration of Mazit compared to Zithromax™ (Subject 7)



Figure A6.14: Logarithmic concentration of Mazit compared to Zithromax™ (Subject 7)



Figure A6.15: Concentration of Mazit compared to Zithromax™ (Subject 8)



Figure A6.16: Logarithmic concentration of Mazit compared to Zithromax™ (Subject 8)



Figure A6.17: Concentration of Mazit compared to Zithromax™ (Subject 9)



Figure A6.18: Logarithmic concentration of Mazit compared to Zithromax™ (Subject 9)



Figure A6.19: Concentration of Mazit compared to Zithromax™ (Subject 10)



Figure A6.20: Logarithmic concentration of Mazit compared to Zithromax™ (Subject 10)



Figure A6.21: Concentration of Mazit compared to Zithromax™ (Subject 11)



Figure A6.22: Logarithmic concentration of Mazit compared to Zithromax™ (Subject 11)


Figure A6.23: Concentration of Mazit compared to Zithromax™ (Subject 12)



Figure A6.24: Logarithmic concentration of Mazit compared to Zithromax™ (Subject 12)



Figure A6.25: Concentration of Mazit compared to Zithromax™ (Subject 13)



Figure A6.26: Logarithmic concentration of Mazit compared to Zithromax™ (Subject 13)



Figure A6.27: Concentration of Mazit compared to Zithromax™ (Subject 14)



Figure A6.28: Logarithmic concentration of Mazit compared to Zithromax™ (Subject 14)



Figure A6.29: Concentration of Mazit compared to Zithromax™ (Subject 15)



Figure A6.30: Logarithmic concentration of Mazit compared to Zithromax™ (Subject 15)



Figure A6.31: Concentration of Mazit compared to Zithromax™ (Subject 16)



Figure A6.32: Logarithmic concentration of Mazit compared to Zithromax™ (Subject 16)



Figure A6.33: Concentration of Mazit compared to Zithromax™ (Subject 17)



Figure A6.34: Logarithmic concentration of Mazit compared to Zithromax™ (Subject 17)



Figure A6.35: Concentration of Mazit compared to Zithromax™ (Subject 18)



Figure A6.36: Logarithmic concentration of Mazit compared to Zithromax™ (Subject 18)



Figure A6.37: Concentration of Mazit compared to Zithromax™ (Subject 19)



Figure A6.38: Logarithmic concentration of Mazit compared to Zithromax™ (Subject 19)



Figure A6.39: Concentration of Mazit compared to Zithromax™ (Subject 20)



Figure A6.40: Logarithmic concentration of Mazit compared to Zithromax™ (Subject 20)



Figure A6.41: Concentration of Mazit compared to Zithromax™ (Subject 21)



Figure A6.42: Logarithmic concentration of Mazit compared to Zithromax™ (Subject 21)



Figure A6.43: Concentration of Mazit compared to Zithromax™ (Subject 22)



Figure A6.44: Logarithmic concentration of Mazit compared to Zithromax™ (Subject 22)



Figure A6.45: Concentration of Mazit compared to Zithromax™ (Subject 23)



Figure A6.46: Logarithmic concentration of Mazit compared to Zithromax™ (Subject 23)



Figure A6.47: Concentration of Mazit compared to Zithromax™ (Subject 24)



Figure A6.48: Logarithmic concentration of Mazit compared to Zithromax™ (Subject 24)

# **Appendix 7: Variation from the study protocol for the bioequivalence study between Mazit 250 mg (test product) and Zithromax™ 250 mg (reference product)**



CS: Clinical safety study outcome.

PK: Pharmacokinetic study outcome.



CS: Clinical safety study outcome.<br>PK: Pharmacokinetic study outcome.

# **Appendix 8: The informed consent and other forms used in the bioequivalence study between Mazit 250 mg (test product) and Zithromax™ (reference product)**



#### EXHIBIT#1 "INFORMED CONSENT FORM" (ENGLISH TRANSLATION) To be Used In conjunction with SOP: CLP-007 Revision (M)

# 3. Adverse Drug Reactions The most Common adverse events;

Gastrointestinal tract: diarrhoea, loose stools, abdominal complaints pain, spasm, flatulence, nausea and vomiting, In patients with severe and persistent diarrhoea, the possibility of life-theratening pseudomembraneous colitis should be borne in mind.

Miscellaneous: superinfection with non-susceptible organisms, including fungi.

Rare adverse events:

Hepatobiliary system: A reversible increase in liver enzymes and in serum bilirubin.

Blood and blood corpuscles: neutropenia.

Hypersensitivity reactions: reactions of skin and mucosa such as reddening with or without pruritus, reversible local swellings of skin, mucosa or joints angioedema and acute allergic general reactions (anaphylaxis).

# 4. Study Procedures

The duration of this study is approximately 25 days and consists of two periods separated by at least a 21-day washout period and the duration of the study might be lengthen if the wash out period lengthen

# During Screening:

I will listen to the consenting procedure from the medical team in charge of the study and will give all the necessary information regarding my medical history. I will undergo physical examination, vital signs measurement, ECG. I shall willingly give a blood sample of 13.5 ml to perform blood tests and a urine sample for laboratory examination.

# Admission:

Drugs of abuse as well as alcohol screening tests will be performed on admission to both periods and a standardized dinner will be given at least 10 hours before dosing.

# During Study Conduction:

I will enter the study facility at least 12 hours before dosing each period and remain there for 24 hours after dosing and I will return back to donate the rest of samples. I understand that while I am in the facility, I will eat and drink only what is provided in the time allotted. Standardized meals will be provided about 4 hours (lunch) and 12 hours (dinner) and a standardized snack will be given 4 hours after lunch. I will be forbidden from drinking water before and after one hour of dosing and then I will be allowed to drink water as I desire. I will remain seated for the first four hours after dosing in each period. Vital signs will be measured before dosing and at the following times after dosing:  $1^{st}$ ,  $2^{nd}$ ,  $3^{rd}$ ,  $4^{th}$ ,  $6^{th}$ ,  $8^{th}$ ,

## EXHIBIT #1 "INFORMED CONSENT FORM" (ENGLISH TRANSLATION) To be Used in conjunction with SOP: CLP-007 Revision (M)

 $11<sup>th</sup>$  and 24<sup>th</sup> hour and at any time if deemed necessary.

During each period, I will be given a 500 mg azithromycin in the form of capsules (two capsules each one containing 262.05 mg of Azithromycin dihydrate equivalent to 250 mg of azithromycin). I shall swallow the drug without chewing with 240 ml of water as a single dose. Treatment assignment (under investigation or reference) in any period will be according to a random scheme. I shall willingly give 22 blood samples in each period (each sample will be 8 ml).

The time schedule for blood sampling (after giving the pre dosing sample and drug dosing):

0.33, 0.66, 1.00, 1.33, 1.66, 2.00, 2.50, 3.00, 3.50, 4.00, 4.50, 5.00, 6.00, 8.00, 10,00, 12.00, 16.00, 24.00, 48.00 and 72.00 hours.

After each blood sampling the cannula will be injected with 0.1 ml of heparin solution its concentration 50 IU/ml (which equals 5 IU) to prevent blood coagulation.

After Study Completion:

I will undergo physical examination, vital signs measurement and ECG. I shall willingly give a blood sample of 9 ml to perform liver function tests.

The total quantity of blood drawn will not exceed 374.5 ml. This volume does not include samples for clinical laboratory repeats, nor samples for ensuring subjects safety based on the judgment of the principal investigator. The total volume should not exceed 420 ml.

I was informed that all the blood samples taken will not be used for any other purposes except those mentioned in the protocol.

I might need to donate urine or blood (not exceeding 10 ml) for repeating any test if needed.

#### EXHIBIT #1 "INFORMED CONSENT FORM" (ENGLISH TRANSLATION) To be Used In conjunction with SOP: CLP-007 Revision (M)

### 5. Study's Objectives

The study will evaluate the rate and extent of absorption of the study drug in healthy subjects and is not intended for treatment of a medical condition. As such, this is not an alternative treatment or procedure that is advantageous to the medical condition of the study participants.

### 6. Benefits

This study has no benefit to my health. If the test formulation was approved for marketing, society may benefit from having this product as a pharmaceutical medication alternate.

#### 7. Qualifications

I have been informed that if my medical history, physical examination and diagnostic laboratory studies have made me eligible for participating in this study. I certify that:

1. I am between 18 to 45 of age.

2. I have informed the staff of IPRC that I didn't participate in any bioequivalence or clinical study within the last two months.

3. I have not donated blood or its derivatives in the past 3 months.

4. I do not have a history of asthma, peptic or gastric ulcer, sinusitis, pharyngitis, renal disorder, hepatic disorder, cardiovascular disorder, neurological disease, haematological disorders or diabetes, psychiatric, dermatologic or immunological disorders.

5. I don't need any medical treatment. I am in a good health that doesn't need medical care.

6. I am not an employee of IPRC and if this was the case my participation or discontinuance will not affect my job performance evaluation.

7. I am not and have never in the past had a known allergy to the drug under study (azithromycin) or any of its other ingredients or any related drug (erythromycin, any macrolide or ketolide antibiotic).

8. I am neither an alcoholic nor am I addicted to any drug.

9. I have fully informed the staff about my medical history and I am aware that hiding any information of this type may be hazardous to my health during the study.

#### I have also been informed that:

1. I shall not consume any prescription and non-prescription drugs for at least two weeks before starting the study and till the last sample of the study.

2. I shall not consume vitamins (for nutritional purposes) for at least two days before starting the study and

#### **EXHIBIT #1** "INFORMED CONSENT FORM" (ENGLISH TRANSLATION) To be Used In conjunction with SOP: CLP-007 Revision (M)

till the last sample of the study.

3. I will not consume any beverages or food containing methyl-xanthines e.g. caffeine (coffee, tea, cola, energy drinks, chocolate etc.) 24 hours prior to the study drug administration of either Study Period until the end of confinement.

4. I will not consume any beverages or food containing alcohol 48 hours prior to study drug administration until donating the last sample in each respective period.

5. I will not consume any grapefruit containing beverages or food for at least 7 days prior to drug dosing till the last sample of the study.

6. I will not be allowed to engage in strenuous exercise at least one day prior to dosing till the last sample of each respective period of the study.

7. I should not donate blood during this study and for at least 4 weeks after study completion.

8. I may be asked to return for follow-up tests to assure my safety and continued good health.

9. I understand well that I may be discontinued from the study for disruptive behaviour or for violations to the protocol, such as failure to report on time, non compliance to study time schedule, refusal of baggage search as a preventive procedure before or during study conduction, use of drugs, alcohol or behaviour that does not permit the study to be properly performed.

10. I might be withdrawn during any of the study periods without my consent for the benefit off my health and safety as judged by the study physician.

11. The staff at IPRC may want to withdraw blood samples and collect urine samples (the amount of which will be determined by the study physician), if required, for the purpose of establishing my adherence to the above mentioned requirements. I agree to have additional blood and urine samples collected from me, for the above stated reasons and also, if necessary, to ensure my continued good health.

12. Pregnant females or lactating females are excluded from the study (in case there were female participants).

13. I will be excluded if I am taking one or more of the following medication, nelfinavir, warfarin, atorvastatin, carbamazepine, cetirizine, didanosine, efavirenz, fluconazole, indinavir, midazolam, rifabutin, sildenafil, theophylline (intravenous and oral), triazolam, trimethoprim/sulfamethoxazole or zidovudine, digoxin, ergotamine or dihydroergotamine ,terfenadine, cyclosporine, hexobarbital and phenytoin, antacid containing aluminum and magnesium hydroxide, cimetidine.

14. I will be excluded if I have been diagnosed with liver disease, kidney disease, certain heart problems (abnormalities ECG, slow heartbeat, heart failure), family history of certain heart problems, pneumonia, colitis, fungal infection.

15. I will be excluded if I have history of difficulties in swallowing or any gastrointestinal disease which could affect the drug absorption.

### EXHIBIT#1 "INFORMED CONSENT FORM" (ENGLISH TRANSLATION) To be Used In conjunction with SOP: CLP-007 Revision (M)

# 8. Voluntary Participation and the Right to Withdraw

I understand that my participation in this study is voluntary and my refusal to participate in this study will not jeopardize my consideration for participation in future studies. I can withdraw from the study at any time and, if so, I will not be penalized however, I shall be compensated as described in section 9.

# 9. Compensation

During period I of this study, I shall be paid a total of 25% of the compensation for this study, which equals 47.5 JD, During period II of this study. I shall be paid a total of 25% of the compensation for this study, which equals 47.5 JD and 50% by the end of the study (after donating the last study sample) which equals 95 JD. Taking into consideration that the total compensation is 190 JD that include 10 JD transportation fees for each blood sample donated in each visit after leaving the clinical site. I have no rights to ask for any excess compensation.

In case of my withdrawal from the study before the first study drug administration and on my request I shall not have any compensation

In case of termination or suspension of the study by the International Pharmaceutical Research Center or the sponsor I will compensated as follows:

In case of termination or suspension of the study before first study drug administration, I shall be paid a total of 10 JD

In case of termination or suspension of the study before the second study drug administration, I shall be paid a total of 50 % of the compensation for this study which equals 95 JD

In case of termination or suspension of the study in the final period (following final drug administration), I shall be paid in proportion to the period of my participation in the study depending on the number of the donated samples

In case of termination of my study participation for medical reasons and according to study physician decision:

In case of termination of my participation during period I, I shall be paid a total of 10 JD. And if the termination of my participation was done during period II, I shall be paid a total of 47.5 JD

#### ЕХНІВІТ#1 "INFORMED CONSENT FORM" (ENGLISH TRANSLATION) To be Used in conjunction with SOP: CLP-007 Revision (M)

## 10. Information related to the rights of the subjects

If I have any questions about my related rights as a subject, I can call Dr. Darwish Badran (Chairman of the Institutional Review Board members (Ethical committee responsible for the subjects rights)) who is responsible for subjects rights on the telephone no.: 0795641188

## 11. Information related to study related injuries

In case of an emergency within the study periods or after I have completed the study, I will first contact the Center where the study was carried out. If I am unable to reach the Center, I will go to the nearest hospital and inform the medical staff there of my participation in a bioequivalence study. In addition, in the case of a study related injury, I will call Dr. Usama Harb (The Principal Investigator and the responsible physician) at: 0776337225

# 12. Medical Treatment for Study-Related Injury

The International Pharmaceutical Research Center (IPRC) will undertake the full responsibility to complete all the necessary procedures required to procure an insurance contract for the subjects from Euro Arab Insurance Company before conducting the study. Thus, I am fully eligible for treatment of any medical problems that may occur as a result of my participation in this study (the study physician shall determine the extent of the relationship between the injury and the test drug). In the event of a studyrelated injury, the clinical staff of IPRC will provide immediate medical treatment, free of charge and provide subsequent referrals to the appropriate health care facilities. IPRC will be responsible for the financial coverage of all the medical expenses of injuries suffered as a result of participating in this study.

## 13. Confidentiality

All records related to my identity and study participation are confidential to the extent required by law and no - one will have access to these records except, the IPRC staff, the sponsor of the study, the Institutional Review Board, Insurance Company, Ministry of Health in Jordan, or any regulatory authority to which this study is submitted to. I have read and understood this consent form which is written in a language that I understand. I have also heard the entire consent form read aloud to me by the IPRC staff. The adverse events that may result from taking this drug have been also explained to me. The staff has answered any questions I have about the study. I agree to participate in this study. And I hold the right to retain a copy of it





Exhibit 2

**SUBJECT NO.** 

To be used in conjunction with SOP# DMU-010 (Revision B)

**CASE REPORT FORM** 

**MEDICAL EVALUATION RECORD** 

**IPRC STUDY CODE** 

**SUBJECT INITIALS** 





**SUBJECT NO.** 

**CASE REPORT FORM** 

**MEDICAL EVALUATION RECORD** 

**IPRC STUDY CODE** 

**SUBJECT INITIALS** 





**CASE REPORT FORM** 

MEDICAL EVALUATION RECORD







**CASE REPORT FORM** 

MEDICAL EVALUATION RECORD







**CASE REPORT FORM** 

MEDICAL EVALUATION RECORD







Exhibit 3

To be used in conjunction with SOP# DMU-010 (Revision B)

**CASE REPORT FORM** 

FOLLOW UP RECORD AND STUDY CLOSEOUT



# **Appendix 9: Statistical analysis for the bioequivalence study of Mazit 250 mg (test product) and Zithromax™ 250 mg (reference product)**

# **Minitab Project Report**

# **General Linear Model: LogCmax versus Treatment, Sequence, Period, Subject**

Method Factor coding  $(-1, 0, +1)$ Factor Information Factor Type Levels Values Treatment Fixed 2 Mazit, Zithromax<br>
Sequence Fixed 2 AB, BA Sequence Fixed 2 AB, BA Period Fixed 2 1, 2<br>Subject(Sequence) Random 24 2(AB)  $\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 & 2 \\ 2(AB), 3(AB), 5(AB), 10(AB), 11(AB), 12(AB), \end{pmatrix}$ 13(AB), 14(AB), 15(AB), 16(AB), 20(AB), 23(AB), 1(BA), 4(BA), 6(BA), 7(BA), 8(BA), 9(BA), 17(BA), 18(BA), 19(BA), 21(BA), 22(BA), 24(BA) Analysis of Variance Source DF Adj SS Adj MS F-Value P-Value Treatment 1 0.00345 0.003450 0.21 0.655 Sequence 1 0.13548 0.135483 3.33 0.082 Period 1 0.00218 0.002182 0.13 0.722 Subject(Sequence) 22 0.89572 0.040714 2.42 0.022 Error 22 0.36957 0.016798 Total 47 1.40640 Model Summary S R-sq R-sq(adj) R-sq(pred)<br>09 73.72% 43.86% 0.00%  $0.129609$  73.72% 43.86% Coefficients Term Coef SE Coef T-Value P-Value VIF Constant 2.4150 0.0187 129.09 0.000 Treatment Mazit -0.0085 0.0187 -0.45 0.655 1.00 Sequence AB 0.0531 0.0187 2.84 0.010 1.00 Period 1 0.0067 0.0187 0.36 0.722 1.00 Subject(Sequence)



#### Regression Equation

```
LogCmax = 2.4150 - 0.0085 Treatment_Mazit + 0.0085 Treatment_Zithromax 
+ 0.0531 Sequence_AB 
           - 0.0531 Sequence_BA + 0.0067 Period_1 - 0.0067 Period_2 
           + 0.1614 Subject(Sequence)_2(AB) + 0.0086 Subject(Sequence)_3(AB) 
           + 0.1436 Subject(Sequence)_5(AB) - 0.1086 Subject(Sequence)_10(AB) 
           - 0.0080 Subject(Sequence)_11(AB) + 0.1570 Subject(Sequence)_12(AB) 
           - 0.0336 Subject(Sequence)_13(AB) - 0.0877 Subject(Sequence)_14(AB) 
           + 0.0695 Subject(Sequence)_15(AB) - 0.2636 Subject(Sequence)_16(AB) 
           + 0.1213 Subject(Sequence)_20(AB) - 0.1600 Subject(Sequence)_23(AB) 
           - 0.1575 Subject(Sequence)_1(BA) - 0.0632 Subject(Sequence)_4(BA) 
           + 0.0522 Subject(Sequence)_6(BA) + 0.2156 Subject(Sequence)_7(BA) 
           + 0.1403 Subject(Sequence)_8(BA) - 0.0513 Subject(Sequence)_9(BA) 
           - 0.2294 Subject(Sequence)_17(BA) - 0.0971 Subject(Sequence)_18(BA) 
           + 0.1812 Subject(Sequence)_19(BA) + 0.0531 Subject(Sequence)_21(BA) 
           + 0.1232 Subject(Sequence)_22(BA) - 0.1672 Subject(Sequence)_24(BA)
```
Equation treats random terms as though they are fixed.

Fits and Diagnostics for Unusual Observations



R Large residual

Expected Mean Squares, using Adjusted SS

```
 Expected Mean Square 
   Source for Each Term
1 Treatment (5) + Q[1]<br>2 Sequence (5) + 2.00
                      (5) + 2.0000 (4) + Q[2]3 Period (5) + Q[3] 
4 Subject(Sequence) (5) + 2.0000 (4)<br>5 Error (5)5 Error (5)
```
Error Terms for Tests, using Adjusted SS



Variance Components, using Adjusted SS



# **Comparisons for LogCmax**

# **Dunnett Multiple Comparisons with a Control: Response = LogCmax, Term = Treatment**

Grouping Information Using the Dunnett Method and 90% Confidence

Treatment N Mean Grouping Zithromax (Control) 24 2.42350 A Mazit 24 2.40654 A

Means not labeled with the letter A are significantly different from the control level mean.

Dunnett Simultaneous Tests for Level Mean - Control Mean



Individual confidence level = 90.00%

# **General Linear Model: LogAUC0-t versus Treatment, Sequence, Period, Subject**

Method

Factor coding  $(-1, 0, +1)$ 

Factor Information



Analysis of Variance



Model Summary



```
Coefficients
```




#### Regression Equation

LogAUC0-t = 3.2305 - 0.0153 Treatment\_Mazit + 0.0153 Treatment\_Zithromax + 0.0406 Sequence\_AB - 0.0406 Sequence\_BA + 0.0122 Period\_1 - 0.0122 Period\_2 - 0.0369 Subject(Sequence)\_2(AB) - 0.0373 Subject(Sequence)\_3(AB) + 0.1474 Subject(Sequence)\_5(AB) + 0.0069 Subject(Sequence)\_10(AB) - 0.1673 Subject(Sequence)\_11(AB) + 0.2008 Subject(Sequence)\_12(AB) + 0.1358 Subject(Sequence)\_13(AB) + 0.1196 Subject(Sequence)\_14(AB) - 0.0434 Subject(Sequence)\_15(AB) - 0.2660 Subject(Sequence)\_16(AB) + 0.1616 Subject(Sequence)\_20(AB) - 0.2211 Subject(Sequence)\_23(AB) - 0.2694 Subject(Sequence)\_1(BA) - 0.1194 Subject(Sequence)\_4(BA) + 0.0220 Subject(Sequence)\_6(BA) + 0.2461 Subject(Sequence)\_7(BA) + 0.1339 Subject(Sequence)\_8(BA) + 0.0756 Subject(Sequence)\_9(BA)  $- 0.2174$  Subject(Sequence) $17(BA) - 0.1366$  Subject(Sequence) $18(BA)$  + 0.1468 Subject(Sequence)\_19(BA) + 0.1668 Subject(Sequence)\_21(BA) + 0.1222 Subject(Sequence)\_22(BA) - 0.1705 Subject(Sequence)\_24(BA)

Equation treats random terms as though they are fixed.

Fits and Diagnostics for Unusual Observations



R Large residual

Expected Mean Squares, using Adjusted SS



Error Terms for Tests, using Adjusted SS



Variance Components, using Adjusted SS



# **Comparisons for LogAUC0-t**

# **Dunnett Multiple Comparisons with a Control: Response = LogAUC0-t, Term = Treatment**

Grouping Information Using the Dunnett Method and 90% Confidence

Treatment N Mean Grouping Zithromax (Control) 24 3.24575 A Mazit 24 3.21520 A

Means not labeled with the letter A are significantly different from the control level mean.

Dunnett Simultaneous Tests for Level Mean - Control Mean



Individual confidence level = 90.00%

# **General Linear Model: LogAUC0inf versus Treatment, Sequence, Period, Subject**

Method

Factor coding (-1, 0, +1) Rows unused 2

```
Factor Information
```


Analysis of Variance



x Not an exact F-test.

Model Summary

 S R-sq R-sq(adj) R-sq(pred) 0.130103 76.77% 47.72% \*

Coefficients




```
Regression Equation
```

```
LogAUC0inf = 3.3653 - 0.0145 Treatment_Mazit + 0.0145 Treatment_Zithromax 
              + 0.0380 Sequence_AB - 0.0380 Sequence_BA + 0.0356 Period_1 
- 0.0356 Period_2 
              - 0.1134 Subject(Sequence)_2(AB) - 0.098 Subject(Sequence)_3(AB) 
              + 0.0943 Subject(Sequence)_5(AB) + 0.0703 Subject(Sequence)_10(AB) 
              - 0.1228 Subject(Sequence)_11(AB) 
+ 0.1551 Subject(Sequence)_12(AB) 
              + 0.1644 Subject(Sequence)_13(AB) 
+ 0.2358 Subject(Sequence)_14(AB) 
              - 0.1074 Subject(Sequence)_15(AB) 
- 0.2288 Subject(Sequence)_16(AB) 
              + 0.1934 Subject(Sequence)_20(AB) 
- 0.2427 Subject(Sequence)_23(AB) 
               - 0.292 Subject(Sequence)_1(BA) - 0.1911 Subject(Sequence)_4(BA) 
              - 0.0173 Subject(Sequence)_6(BA) + 0.1923 Subject(Sequence)_7(BA) 
              + 0.1131 Subject(Sequence)_8(BA) + 0.0223 Subject(Sequence)_9(BA) 
              - 0.0512 Subject(Sequence)_17(BA) 
+ 0.0993 Subject(Sequence)_18(BA) 
              + 0.1127 Subject(Sequence)_19(BA) 
+ 0.1211 Subject(Sequence)_21(BA) 
              + 0.0632 Subject(Sequence)_22(BA) 
- 0.1720 Subject(Sequence)_24(BA) 
Equation treats random terms as though they are fixed. 
Fits and Diagnostics for Unusual Observations 
Obs LogAUC0inf Fit Resid Std Resid 
18 3.128 3.377 -0.248 -2.83 R<br>25 3.085 3.085 0.000 *
  25 3.085 3.085 0.000 * X 
          2.284 2.284 0.000 * X<br>3.725 3.477 0.248 2.83 R
 42 3.725 3.477 0.248
R Large residual 
X Unusual X
```
Expected Mean Squares, using Adjusted SS



```
4 Subject(Sequence) (5) + 1.9091 (4) 
5 Error (5) 
Error Terms for Tests, using Adjusted SS 
Source Error DF Error MS Synthesis of Error MS<br>1 Treatment 20.00 0.0169 (5)
1 Treatment 20.00 0.0169 (5) 
2 Sequence 22.66 0.0454 0.9603 (4) + 0.0397 (5) 
3 Period 20.00 0.0169 (5) 
4 Subject(Sequence) 20.00 0.0169 (5) 
Variance Components, using Adjusted SS 
Source Variance % of Total StDev % of Total 
Subject(Sequence) 0.0155289 47.85% 0.124615 69.17% 
Error 0.0169267 52.15% 0.130103 72.22%
```
## **Comparisons for LogAUC0inf**

# **Dunnett Multiple Comparisons with a Control: Response = LogAUC0inf, Term = Treatment**

Grouping Information Using the Dunnett Method and 90% Confidence

Treatment N Mean Grouping Zithromax (Control) 24 3.37973 A Mazit 22 3.35082 A

Total 0.0324556 0.180154

Means not labeled with the letter A are significantly different from the control level mean.

Dunnett Simultaneous Tests for Level Mean - Control Mean



Individual confidence level = 90.00%

## **General Linear Model: Logt½ versus Treatment, Sequence, Period, Subject**

```
Method
```

```
Factor coding (-1, 0, +1)<br>Rows unused 2
Rows unused 2
```
Factor Information

```
Factor Type Levels Values
Treatment Fixed 2 Mazit, Zithromax 
Sequence Fixed 2 AB, BA
Period Fixed 2 1, 2
Subject(Sequence) Random 24 2(AB), 3(AB), 5(AB), 10(AB), 11(AB), 12(AB), 
13(AB), 
                             14(AB), 15(AB), 16(AB), 20(AB), 23(AB), 
1(BA), 4(BA), 
                             6(BA), 7(BA), 8(BA), 9(BA), 17(BA), 18(BA), 
19(BA), 
                             21(BA), 22(BA), 24(BA) 
Analysis of Variance 
Source DF Adj SS Adj MS F-Value P-Value 
 Treatment 1 0.00468 0.004677 0.07 0.787<br>Sequence 1 0.00000 0.000000 0.00 1.000 x
                 1 0.00000 0.000000
 Period 1 0.11383 0.113830 1.82 0.193
 Subject(Sequence) 22 2.29016 0.104098 1.66 0.129 
Error 20 1.25300 0.062650
Total 45 3.66324
x Not an exact F-test. 
Model Summary 
      S R-sq R-sq(adj) R-sq(pred) 
0.250300 65.80% 23.04%Coefficients 
Term Coef SE Coef T-Value P-Value VIF 
Constant 1.3916 0.0377 36.88 0.000 
Treatment 
               -0.0103 0.0377 -0.27 0.787 1.04
```




#### Regression Equation

Logt $\frac{1}{2}$  = 1.3916 - 0.0103 Treatment\_Mazit + 0.0103 Treatment\_Zithromax + 0.0000 Sequence\_AB - 0.0000 Sequence\_BA + 0.0509 Period\_1 - 0.0509 Period\_2 - 0.258 Subject(Sequence)\_2(AB) - 0.232 Subject(Sequence)\_3(AB) + 0.088 Subject(Sequence)\_5(AB) + 0.140 Subject(Sequence)\_10(AB) - 0.122 Subject(Sequence)\_11(AB) + 0.134 Subject(Sequence)\_12(AB) + 0.345 Subject(Sequence)\_13(AB) + 0.486 Subject(Sequence)\_14(AB) - 0.269 Subject(Sequence)\_15(AB) - 0.179 Subject(Sequence)\_16(AB) + 0.023 Subject(Sequence)\_20(AB) - 0.155 Subject(Sequence)\_23(AB) - 0.221 Subject(Sequence)\_1(BA) - 0.540 Subject(Sequence)\_4(BA) + 0.024 Subject(Sequence)\_6(BA) + 0.090 Subject(Sequence)\_7(BA) + 0.149 Subject(Sequence)\_8(BA) + 0.044 Subject(Sequence)\_9(BA) + 0.213 Subject(Sequence)\_17(BA) + 0.288 Subject(Sequence)\_18(BA) - 0.103 Subject(Sequence)\_19(BA) + 0.136 Subject(Sequence)\_21(BA) - 0.004 Subject(Sequence)\_22(BA) - 0.078 Subject(Sequence)\_24(BA)

Equation treats random terms as though they are fixed.

Fits and Diagnostics for Unusual Observations



Source Error DF Error MS Synthesis of Error MS<br>1 Treatment 20.00 0.0626 (5)  $20.00$   $0.0626$  (5)



## **Comparisons for Logt½**

# **Dunnett Multiple Comparisons with a Control: Response = Logt½, Term = Treatment**

Grouping Information Using the Dunnett Method and 90% Confidence

Treatment N Mean Grouping Zithromax (Control) 24 1.40189 A Mazit 22 1.38127 A

Means not labeled with the letter A are significantly different from the control level mean.

Dunnett Simultaneous Tests for Level Mean - Control Mean



Individual confidence level = 90.00%

## **General Linear Model: t1/2 versus Treatment, Sequence, Period, Subject**

```
Method
```

```
Factor coding (-1, 0, +1)Rows unused 2
```
 $3(AB)$   $-16.4$ <br> $5(AB)$   $0.4$ 

 5(AB) 0.4 17.7 0.02 0.982 \* 10(AB) 5.7 17.7 0.32 0.753 \* 11(AB) -9.6 17.7 -0.54 0.595 \* 12(AB) 3.9 17.7 0.22 0.827 \*<br>13(AB) 24.7 17.7 1.39 0.179 \* 13(AB) 24.7 17.7 1.39 0.179 \*<br>14(AB) 46.4 17.7 2.61 0.017 \* 14(AB) 46.4 17.7 2.61 0.017 \* 15(AB) -15.9 17.7 -0.90 0.381 \*

Factor Information

```
Factor Type Levels Values
Treatment Fixed 2 Mazit, Zithromax 
Sequence Fixed 2 AB, BA
Period Fixed 2 1, 2
Subject(Sequence) Random 24 2(AB), 3(AB), 5(AB), 10(AB), 11(AB), 12(AB), 
13(AB), 
                            14(AB), 15(AB), 16(AB), 20(AB), 23(AB), 
1(BA), 4(BA), 
                            6(BA), 7(BA), 8(BA), 9(BA), 17(BA), 18(BA), 
19(BA), 
                            21(BA), 22(BA), 24(BA) 
Analysis of Variance 
Source DF Adj SS Adj MS F-Value P-Value 
 Treatment 1 640.1 640.07 0.94 0.344 
 Sequence 1 22.9 22.90 0.03 0.867 x
 Period 1 740.4 740.44 1.09 0.309
  Subject(Sequence) 22 17563.0 798.32 1.17 0.362 
Error 20 13615.5 680.78 
Total 45 32347.5 
x Not an exact F-test. 
Model Summary 
    S R-sq R-sq(adj) R-sq(pred)<br>17 57.91% 5.29% *
26.0917 57.91%
Coefficients 
Term Coef SE Coef T-Value P-Value VIF 
Constant 30.54 3.93 7.76 0.000 
Treatment 
              -3.81 3.93 -0.97 0.344 1.04Sequence 
              -0.72 3.93 -0.18 0.856 1.05
Period 
  1 4.10 3.93 1.04 0.309 1.05 
Subject(Sequence) 
  2(AB) -15.2 17.7 -0.86 0.403 *
```


#### Regression Equation

t1/2 = 30.54 - 3.81 Treatment\_Mazit + 3.81 Treatment\_Zithromax - 0.72 Sequence\_AB + 0.72 Sequence\_BA + 4.10 Period\_1 - 4.10 Period\_2 - 15.2 Subject(Sequence)\_2(AB) - 16.4 Subject(Sequence)\_3(AB) + 0.4 Subject(Sequence)\_5(AB) + 5.7 Subject(Sequence)\_10(AB) - 9.6 Subject(Sequence)\_11(AB) + 3.9 Subject(Sequence)\_12(AB) + 24.7 Subject(Sequence)\_13(AB) + 46.4 Subject(Sequence)\_14(AB) - 15.9 Subject(Sequence)\_15(AB) - 12.3 Subject(Sequence)\_16(AB) - 3.8 Subject(Sequence)\_20(AB) - 7.9 Subject(Sequence)\_23(AB) - 22.1 Subject(Sequence)\_1(BA) - 24.1 Subject(Sequence)\_4(BA) - 4.3 Subject(Sequence)\_6(BA) - 0.9 Subject(Sequence)\_7(BA) + 3.6 Subject(Sequence)\_8(BA) - 3.1 Subject(Sequence)\_9(BA) + 9.0 Subject(Sequence)\_17(BA) + 62.7 Subject(Sequence)\_18(BA) - 8.8 Subject(Sequence)\_19(BA) + 2.4 Subject(Sequence)\_21(BA) - 6.3 Subject(Sequence)\_22(BA) - 8.0 Subject(Sequence)\_24(BA)

Equation treats random terms as though they are fixed.

Fits and Diagnostics for Unusual Observations



R Large residual

```
X Unusual X
```
Expected Mean Squares, using Adjusted SS

```
 Expected Mean Square 
  Source for Each Term
1 Treatment (5) + Q[1]<br>2 Sequence (5) + 1.832 Sequence (5) + 1.8333 (4) + Q[2]<br>3 Period (5) + Q[3](5) + Q[3]4 Subject(Sequence) (5) + 1.9091 (4) 
5 Error (5)
```
Error Terms for Tests, using Adjusted SS

Source **EXECUTE:** Extror DF Error MS Synthesis of Error MS

1 Treatment 20.00 680.7771 (5) 2 Sequence 23.55 793.6517 0.9603 (4) + 0.0397 (5) 3 Period 20.00 680.7771 (5) 4 Subject(Sequence) 20.00 680.7771 (5) Variance Components, using Adjusted SS Source Variance % of Total StDev % of Total Subject(Sequence) 61.5680 8.29% 7.8465 28.80% Error 680.777 91.71% 26.0917 95.76% Total 742.345 27.2460

# **Wilcoxon Signed Rank CI: DiffT-R**



# **Appendix 10: Additional work undertaken using Capillary Electrophoresis (CE) method**



September 29-October 01, 2014 DoubleTree by Hilton Baltimore-BWI Airport, USA

#### Analytical techniques for tracking counterfeit and substandard medicines

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Background: Counterfeit and substandard medicines are a global problem affecting both developed and developing countries. Counterfeit medicines are fake, while substandard medicines are true medicines that do not meet the requirements for quality, safety and efficacy of the branded drug. Both counterfeit and substandard drugs can be life threatening and have caused deaths. Thus, it is important to have simple and rapid methodology for detecting counterfeit and substandard medicines. In this study, we used capillary electrophoresis (CE) to detect impurities in lisinopril, high performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) to quantify ciclosporin active ingredients, Ultra Performance Liquid Chromatography with tandem mass spectrometry (UPLC-MS/MS) for detecting impurities in both ciclosporin and azithromycin.

Method: 44 lisinopril, 8 ciclosporin and 19 azithromycin products were obtained from hospitals and pharmacies from 11 countries. In-vitro dissolution testing was used to identify differences between products. It was performed to United States Pharmacopeia (USP) guidelines with sampling at intervals up to 120 min. The samples were quantified by CE, isocratic reverse phase liquid chromatography (RPLC) and UPLC-MS for lisinopril, ciclosporin and azithromycin, respectively.

Results: Impurities were detected in all lisinopril tablets: ranging from 4-27%. For ciclosporin, all capsules met the USP requirements, rupturing within 15 minutes. Statistical analysis showed significant differences  $(p<0.0001)$  between the mean contents of brand and generic formulations, the confidence interval (CI) 95% range for the brands were (79-108), (71-98), (81-110), (85-117) and (73-100), (83-114), (45-62), for the generics, 95% CI were calculated based on the reference sample being 100%. All brands and two generics showed more than 80% of ciclosporin after 90 minutes (99, 100, 94, 84, 92, 85 and 97%). One generic, contained less than 54% of labelled amount (54±10%). Relative to the brand the mean % content of all capsules were significantly lower ( $p<0.0001$ ). Ciclosporin degradation impurities were detected in one generic preparation.

Conclusion: Based on the results, it is concluded that some of the ciclosporin preparations did not contain the exact mass labelled. Both ciclosporin and lisinopril preparations contained significant impurities. These results have important implications especially with ciclosporin, which has a narrow therapeutic window. Switching among and between branded and generic ciclosporin may lead to irreversible kidney damage or acute rejection.

### Biography

Aljohani Badr is originally from Saudi Arabia he received his BSc Pharm from King Saud University in Riyadh and his Master and MPhil degree in Clinical Drug Development from Queen Mary University of London, UK. His professional interests include internal medicine, critical care, pediatrics and clinical research. Now, he is in final year PhD in Clinical Pharmacology, Drug Bioequivalence in QMUL.

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